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Contents

The Impact of Perception Training on ELL Spelling: Preventing L1 Phonetic Transfer

Manuela González-Bueno
University of Kansas, 1122 W. Campus Rd. Lawrence, KS 66045, USA
Email: mgbueno@ku.edu

Donita J. Massengill Shaw
University of Kansas, 1122 W. Campus Rd. Lawrence, KS 66045, USA
Email: donita@ku.edu

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate whether teaching English unfamiliar phonetic distinctions to Spanish-speaking English Language Learners (ELL) would impact their spelling of the corresponding graphemes. Eleven third graders in a Midwestern inner city school who were Spanish-speakers participated in 20 training sessions. The 20-lesson intervention treatment focused on auditory discrimination, word and sentence identification, and grapheme training of minimal pairs of words containing "d" and "th" (when representing the phoneme /ð/). The treatment consisted of exposing learners to strategically controlled listening exercises that required their *active* attention to the aural input and its assigned meaning (e.g., the concept of "wordy" versus that of "worthy,") so they could differentiate between phonemes and learn the associated graphemes "d/th". Analysis of the pre-post test data showed a significant improvement in students' ability to spell words with the targeted sounds after 20 lessons. When the targeted sound was in initial position, students improved in all tasks, but minimal improvement was found when the targeted sound was in medial or final position. Recommendations for classroom teachers to incorporate similar interventions are included.

Index Terms—spelling, phonology, ELL, L2 transfer

According to a quantitative meta-analysis evaluating the effects of phonemic awareness instruction on learning to read and spell, conducted by the National Reading Panel (Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh & Shanahan, 2001), the effect of such instruction was large and statistically significant, with a moderate, statistically significant impact on reading and spelling. However, Ehri *et al.* (2001) recognized that the factors of whether English was the first or second language of students was neglected in their analysis. This is important, since the non-English-speaking population is an ever-growing one in American schools, and faces its own language-specific challenges in reading and spelling in English.

For example, Spanish-speaking children who are learning English as a second language have difficulty discriminating between similar sounds in English that do not have counterparts in their native language (Ehri et al, 2001, Helman, 2004). The English phonemes /ð/ (represented by the diagraph "th" as in "they"), /ʃ/, (as in "she"), or /Z/ (as in "measure") present challenges to Spanish speakers because these sounds are not found in their language. Research has shown that students use graphemes from their native language which most closely resemble the English sounds (Bear, Helman, Templeton, Invernizzi & Johnston, 2007). For example, they would write the word "together" as "*togeder" since the sound represented by the "th" ([ð]) is just an allophonic variation of the phoneme /d/ in Spanish that occurs in specific phonetic contexts but it is still spelled "d" (see Appendix I). In addition, there are linguistic contexts in which the mispronunciation or misspelling of such sound might lead to miscommunication. For example, in the case of the minimal pair "breed/breathe," the phrase "my dog is having problems breathing" could be interpreted as "my dog is having problems breeding." Even when the situational context might help dismiss this type of confusion, the mere similarity between the two sounds will interfere with correct spelling.

The purpose of this study, thus, was to investigate whether teaching the English unfamiliar phonetic distinction /d/-/ð/ to Spanish-speaking ELL students would impact their spelling of the corresponding graphemes "d/th".

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

To understand the background of this study, two topics will be presented. The intervention is founded on three theories that will be discussed first. Next, orthography, also known as written language, is how student learning was measured. We looked at research on orthographic errors, spelling instruction, and intervention studies.

A. Theoretical Framework

There are three theoretical models that consider the learners' particular way of processing the second language (L2) phonological features, which is influenced by their own native language. The models are Speech Learning Model (Flege, 1995), Perceptual Assimilation Model (Best, 1995), and Native Language Magnet Model (Kuhl & Inverson, 1995).

Flege's (1995) *Speech Learning Model* (SLM) says that the greater the perceived distance is on an L2 sound, the more likely a separate category will be established for the L2 sound, therefore it will be acquired more easily, whereas those sounds that are similar (the perceived distance is minimal) will cause the most problems because L2 learners will not be able to discriminate the subtle difference and establish separate categories. Another model is Best's (1995) *Perceptual Assimilation Model* (PAM), according to which learners are likely to assimilate unfamiliar L2 sounds to the most familiar L1 sounds, and will categorize them depending on the degree of similarity, which will have a direct effect on the degree of difficulty in acquisition. A third model is Kuhl's and Inverson's (1995) *Native Language Magnet Model* (NLM). In this model, "prototypes" or best exemplars of phonetic L1 categories function as perceptual "magnets." The nearer an L2 sound is to a magnet, the more it will be assimilated to the native language category, making it hard to distinguish from the native language sound.

All three models are based on the premise that learners perceive the L2 phonetic features filtered through their own first language (L1) phonological system. The present study locates its approach within this premise, which accounts for L1 and L2 sounds that are relatively more or less difficult to acquire by L2 learners depending on the degree of difference and/or similarity between the two. Given that Spanish speakers consider the sound [ð] under the same phonemic category as [d], and that Spanish [ð] is similar to the English phoneme [ð], it follows that Spanish speakers learning English as a second language will categorize English [ð] as just an allophonic variation of [d], and therefore will spell with a "d" words containing the sound [ð] (e.g., "together" > *"togeder").

A first step for educators of ELL students is to compare oral languages. English can be compared to Spanish through semantics (meaning of words), syntax (order of words in sentence), morphology (how words are structured) and orthography (how words are written or spelled) (Bear et al, 2007), and phonology, which is the sound of the language. The present study compares English and Spanish through primarily through phonology with the orthography of the two targeted sounds. It investigates how the difference between the two phonological systems affects the orthography of ELLs and how this can be prevented through intervention/teaching.

B. Orthography

The orthography, or written language, may be classified as shallow/transparent or deep/opaque. Spanish is a highly consistent language with regular correspondence between letters and sounds, which makes for easier decoding and more transparency (Bear, Helman, Templeton, Invernizzi, & Johnston, 2007). In contrast, English offers numerous combinations of letters with sounds making it more complex, deep or opaque (Bear, et al., 2007). Both English and Spanish orthographies deviate from the universal phonemic or alphabetic system in the same way (Fashola, Drum, Mayer & Kang, 1996; Pérez Cañado, 2005), meaning they do not always match one grapheme to one phoneme. However, there are notable differences between the two orthographies. For example, there are symbols that exist in one language but not the other (e.g., ñ, á, é…). Additionally, there are symbols that exist in both languages but represent two different sounds, such as "j" which represents the sound [j] in English but [h] in Spanish (Fashola, et al., 1996) and "a" which represents [o] in English but [a] in Spanish (Bear et al., 2007). English orthography has 26 letters that represent at least 44 phonemes. Spanish has 30 graphemes, each representing its own sound.

Orthographic Errors Made by Spanish Speakers

In studies conducted on orthographic errors made by Spanish speakers it has been found that motivation, intelligence, and academic performance in subject areas have minimal impact and do not account for the misspellings that occur (Pérez González, 1978; Pérez Cañado, 2003). Pérez Cañado (2000) asserted that the psychological processes involved in acquiring and producing English and Spanish are equivalent; thus, misspellings in either English or Spanish may be connected to a psychological process. When a child tries to spell an unknown word, s/he will first strategize using the dominant language. For example, a student who speaks Spanish will not naturally spell the sound [ð] with the digraph *th* because there is no *th* in Spanish (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton & Johnston, 2004). Student errors are logical and will make sense when teachers understand the impact of a student's knowledge of spoken Spanish on his/her written English (Bear et al., 2004; Bear, et al., 2007; Howard & Snow, 2000).

Researchers investigated the 'errors' students make as they transition between Spanish to English (Fashola, Drum, Mayer & Kang, 1996). A total of 72 second, third, fifth and sixth grade students were classified into two groups: those who spoke Spanish at home and those who spoke English at home. All students were given a spelling test of 40 common English words such as *baseball, basket, soccer, tall, beanbag* and *vase*. The researchers developed a list of 'predicted' errors, or errors that Spanish-speaking child would naturally apply to the spelling of English words. For each of the 40 words, students' papers were scored as correct, predicted error, non-predicted error, or missing. Sixteen analyses of variance were conducted with language and grade as variables. Fashola et al. (1996) found that students who spoke Spanish produced more than four times as many predicted errors than their English counterparts. Predicted errors included using "j" for the /h/ sound and "i" for /ee/ sound. Both groups produced a similar number of non-predicted errors. There was no significant interaction between language status and grade level for the predicted errors, but there was a significant interaction among language and grade for non-predicted errors. Students, when learning English, need "to be able to *hear* and produce sounds in the same way as the native speakers of the language" (Fashola, et al, 1996, p. 831). Students who have fully transitioned to English literacy understand, consciously or unconsciously, both the orthographic and phonemic systems in both languages. The authors support a cognitive model for transitioning from Spanish to English. They also state that few studies have addressed *how* to teach transitional orthography.

Spelling instruction

Spelling taking into consideration both native and target (English) languages has received little emphasis in research or teaching (Hughes & Searle, 1997; Pérez González, 1996). Further, when spelling instruction is given, too often it is done with an inadequate focus on rote memorization of isolated word lists and rules (Heald-Taylor, 1998; Invernizzi, Abouzeid & Gill, 1994). Several researchers advocate for the explicit teaching of spelling (Bear, et al., 2004; Helman, 2004; Pérez Cañado, 2005). It is best if the approach is multisensory and combines visual, auditory, and kinesthetic activities (Bear, et al., 2004; Pérez Cañado, 2005). The idea that both visual and phonological procedures should be used is supported by a number of researchers in multiple countries (Cramer, 1998; McCracken & McCracken, 1996; Pinnell & Fountas, 1998; Smith, Hinson & Smith, 1998). Students who struggle in learning English will most benefit from an explicit cross-linguistic literacy intervention; that is, an intervention that involves both students' native language, Spanish, and the target language, English. This type of intervention will help students make connections across languages and understand similarities and differences in orthography (Jimenez, García & Pearson, 1996). Spelling should not be isolated but seen as a tool for writing and one that will strengthen the reading/writing relationship (Bloodgood, 1991; Pérez Cañado, 2005; Schlagal, 2002).

Intervention studies

Studies aimed to improve the perception of unfamiliar foreign language sounds exist, for example, those targeting the perception of the distinction between [l] and [r] by Japanese speakers learning English (Lively, Yamada, Tohkura & Yamada, 1994). However, the main objective of these studies were the improvement of English pronunciation. By implementing the perception training used in this study, not only the perception of L2 sounds is facilitated, but also its transfer to spelling. The strategy we used consists of exposing learners to strategically controlled listening exercises that require their *active* attention to the aural input and its assigned meaning (e.g., the concept of "wordy" versus that of "worthy,") so they can differentiate between phonemes and learn the associated graphemes. Unlike the old mechanical drills of behaviorist approaches believed to help learners internalize correct forms by meaningless repetition, the listening exercises used in this study are meaning-based, so input is processed by attaching meaning to form at deeper levels of language processing (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Thus, students must process the target language phonology system so they become capable of accurately perceiving the foreign sounds. The term "process" is used to refer to the development of the ability to perceive and identify foreign sounds that do not exist in the learners' first language phonological system.

The intervention given to the participants in the present study aimed to help them develop the ability to discriminate and identify the two English sounds [d] and [ð] in an attempt to improve the spelling of words containing those two sounds.

The research questions for this study are:

1. How much improvement in the spelling of words containing either one of the two graphemes "d/th" occurred after the intervention?

2. How much improvement in the discrimination and identification of the two English sounds /d/-/ð/ occurred after the intervention?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study took place at one elementary school located in a Midwestern inner-city district. The district hosts 49 schools: five high schools, eight middle schools, 30 elementary schools, and two preschools as well as three alternative and adult learning sites. The total student enrollment at the time of intervention among these 49 sites was 19,750 students. Of the 30 elementary schools, 18 schools are designated as English as Second Language sites. This means they have ESL certified teachers and provide programs and interventions for the ELL students. When ELL students enroll in the district, they attend one of the ESL sites even if another school is closer to their home.

This particular elementary school was selected because of the professional development connection to the university. The total school enrollment during the intervention was 359 students. One hundred ninety (190) students received ESL services (53%) and 316 of the total student body received free/reduced lunch (88%).

The research intervention took place with third graders at this elementary school. This grade was selected by the principal and approved by the researchers. There were a total of 65 third graders, 55 who received free/reduced lunch. Of the total 65 students, 36 students who received ESL services (55%) as designated by school personnel were the ones we targeted.

B. Pre-test

All 36 ESL-serviced third graders were administered a spelling pre-test by school personnel. The personnel was a certified ESL teacher who worked with the third graders on a daily basis. The spelling pre-test consisted of ten sentences that contained a total of 48 instances of the target sound /ð/ as represented by the grapheme "th". This sound and its grapheme, contrasted in minimal pair with the sound /d/ and grapheme "d", was selected as representative of the various phonological differences between Spanish and English. This minimal pair is also found in numerous instances of English vocabulary (68 minimal pairs according to http://myweb.tiscali.co.uk/wordscape/wordlist/). This study's pre-

post-spelling test was adapted from another test available online (http://international.ouc.bc.ca/pronunciation) (See Appendix II). The researchers scored the papers to determine which of the 36 third graders needed training in the aforementioned sounds and graphemes. Participants who incorrectly spelled 50% or more of the targeted sound (/ð/) in the pre-test were selected to participate in the intervention (see Appendix II for examples of participants' misspelling). A total of eleven students, 5 boys and 6 girls, were identified as needing treatment. All were Spanish-speaking.

C. Treatment

Prior to the intervention, a list of 12 pairs of words containing the target sounds in phonemic contrast was created by the researchers. The twelve pairs were selected from http://myweb.tiscali.co.uk/wordscape/wordlist/ using the criteria of ease to create minimal pairs of sentences in which to embed the words. The two members of all twelve pairs had the potential for appearing in the same context, therefore increasing the potential for confusion. Table I contains the twelve pairs of words:

TABLE I:
MINIMAL PAIRS

day	they
breed	breathe
dale	they'll
Dan	than
dare	there
dave	they've
den	then
doe	though
doze	those
header	heather
odes	oaths
wordy	worthy

Each pair of words was then embedded in identical sentences, except for the word carrying the target sound (e.g., "He is so wordy!"/"He is so worthy!")[1]. In addition, pictures were selected to make clear the meaning of the intended sentence[2]. See below for an example (Refer to Appendix III for a complete list of sentences).

 He is so wordy!   He is so worthy!

The researchers at the university were also the instructors. One researcher (first author) specializes in Foreign Language/ESL and pronunciation teaching and learning, and the second researcher specializes in orthography. Both researchers train pre-service and in-service teachers on teaching methods in their respective areas. The researchers taught the 11 participants two days a week for a total of 20 sessions. The students were taken from their classrooms for a 15-minute intervention for each of the 20 sessions. During these 20 sessions, the researchers provided three aspects of instruction: auditory training, grapheme training, and phonics/spelling practice.

a. Auditory training

The first 6 of the 20 sessions focused on the auditory training of pairs of words containing the target sounds (/d/-/ð/) in phonemic contrast. During the 15-minute lesson, the students listened to a recorded voice and looked at picture clues for the 12 pairs of words containing the target sounds. The input, therefore, was both aural and visual. Students did not see the words in print during the auditory training sessions. Auditory training had three parts: word discrimination, word identification, and sentence identification (See Appendix IV for sample tasks).

For the word discrimination task, students listened to ten pairs of the same two words (e.g., worthy/wordy) which sometimes consisted of the same word repeated (e.g., wordy – wordy), and other times the words were different (e.g., wordy – worthy). Subjects marked on their worksheet the correct columns labeled "same" or "different," depending on whether they perceived the two words as being the same (e.g., "wordy-wordy" or "worthy-worthy") or as two different words (e.g. "wordy-worthy" or "worthy-wordy").

The second part of auditory training was word identification. Participants received a worksheet that had two columns and one picture clue at the top of each column. For example, one column had the picture clue for 'wordy' and the other

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[1] We recognize that at times it was difficult to find sentences in exact minimal pairs. Some require different inflections and some have an additional word (See Appendix III). However, they were minimal pairs at the word level. The sentences, despite limitations, still provided a natural context in which to contrast the two target sounds.

[2] Although the vocabulary might not appear to be grade level appropriate, our focus was on phonemic awareness rather than on vocabulary. The chosen sentences with pictures clues offered enough context for immediate recognition of the different sounds. The focus was, thus, on awareness of target phonemic distinction, and not meaning of the words.

column label was the picture clue for 'worthy' (see above for pictures). As they listened, the students checked the correct column according to whether they heard one word or the other.

The third part of the auditory training was sentence identification. Again, they received a worksheet identical to that of the word identification with two columns headed by picture clues (e.g. wordy/worthy), but this time, instead of listening to individual pairs of words, they heard complete sentences containing these words. As students listened to the complete sentence carrying the target sound embedded in one word, they checked the correct column based on the sentence they heard (e.g., "He is so wordy!" or "He is so worthy!").

The same procedures for word discrimination, word identification and sentence identification described above were followed with the other eleven minimal pairs of words.

b. Grapheme training

The next 6 of the 20 sessions introduced the graphemes, or printed letter/s in the minimal pairs. The two graphemes "d" and "th" were printed on cardstock and stapled to a wooden stick. Students were given two card sticks, one for each grapheme. The students listened to the same words/sentences created for the auditory training, but instead of marking columns on paper, they held a card for the teacher to see. In this case, the input was aural and students responded kinesthetically. The teacher then held the card containing the target grapheme so students could see if they were correct or incorrect in their auditory/grapheme identification.

c. Phonics/spelling training

The final 8 of the 20 sessions focused on students' writing of the graphemes. After students could successfully match the grapheme with the phoneme by manipulating the cards, the next step consisted in guiding participants towards the actual spelling. This was done by scaffolding the task through three phases. The first phase consisted of circling the word containing the correct grapheme after giving them the same auditory clues as before. For example, they listened to the sentence "He is so wordy!" and they circled the correct word on the paper containing the sentence "He is so wordy/ worthy!" In the second phase, students completed the blank by writing the dictated word. (e.g., He is so wordy!) In the third phase, they wrote the entire sentence. Some words were more difficult than others (e.g. *heather* was more difficult than *day*) and spelling mistakes non-related to the targeted grapheme were made, but not counted. For example, students were not penalized if they spelled *heather* as **hether.*

D. Post-test

A post-test to determine the impact of the training was administered by the same school personnel who administered the pre-test. This post-test was identical to the pre-test (see Appendix II). Given that the words in this test were unfamiliar to the students, there was no threat to internal validity of the test, since the focus was on the perception of the sounds rather than on the meaning of the words. Both researchers independently scored the pre- and post-test for inter-rater reliability, which was 98%.

E. Data Analysis

The first research question asked how much students improved in writing the two targeted graphemes when hearing dictated words containing the corresponding phonemes. This was measured by the 48 instances of the sounds in the words on the pre- and post-test. Students were deducted points if the "th" grapheme was not written correctly; however, no penalization occurred if other aspects of the word were misspelled because those features of words had not been taught. We created a spreadsheet with a number/row for each child. Each student received a pre-test score and a post-test score out of the 48 total points. Since we had a repeated measures design with an intervention, we conducted a paired-samples t-test, which evaluated whether the mean difference between the two variables (pre-post test) was significant. A paired samples t-test was run for the total number of words containing the grapheme "th" spelled correctly out of a total of 48 target words.

The second research question asked how much improvement occurred when students differentiated between the two targeted sounds ([d] and [ð]) as measured by the number of errors found in participants' answer sheets after each of the 20 sessions. Since the different distribution of the phonemes within a word in English and Spanish poses difficulties to learners (Eckman, 1977), descriptive analyses were run to examine if the position of the /d/-/ð/ sounds made a difference in students ability to discriminate and identify them. For example, the sound /ð/ never occurs in final position in Spanish, but it does in English (e.g., "oath").

III. RESULTS

Due to the Spanish language interference, it was thought that making these learners aware of English phonetic distinctions that do not occur in their native language (Spanish) would solve this problem. In an attempt to do this, participants in this study received auditory training with the expectation that once they perceived the difference between the sounds, they would be able to correctly write the targeted sounds within words. To test this hypothesis, the sound /ð/ (represented in English by the diagraph "th") was chosen. The results will be presented by the research questions.

1. How much improvement in the spelling of words containing either one of the two graphemes "d/th" occurred after the intervention?

This question was answered by administering a pre-post test (see Appendix II) with 48 points possible on each test. A pre-test score and a post-test score were entered into a spreadsheet. We used a repeated measures design with an intervention and conducted a paired sample t-test to measure whether there was an improvement in students' ability to spell words over time. The results indicated that the mean post-test ($\underline{M}$ = 33.36, $\underline{SD}$ = 10.14) was significantly greater than the mean pre-test ($\underline{M}$ = 26.64, $\underline{SD}$ = 8.82), $\underline{t}$ (10) = 6.97, p. 000.

2. How much improvement in the discrimination and identification of the two English sounds /d/-/ð/ occurred after the intervention?

This question was answered by conducting descriptive analyses for the position of the sound. The part of the intervention focusing on auditory training consisted of six sessions targeting the word pairs listed in Table II.

TABLE II:
WORD PAIRS IN THE AUDITORY TRAINING

Session	Word pair
1	day/they
2	Dale/they'll
3	Dan/than
4	Dave/they've
5	dare/there
6	den/then
7	doze/those
8	doze/those

Graphs were created for ease of interpretation (see Figures I to III)
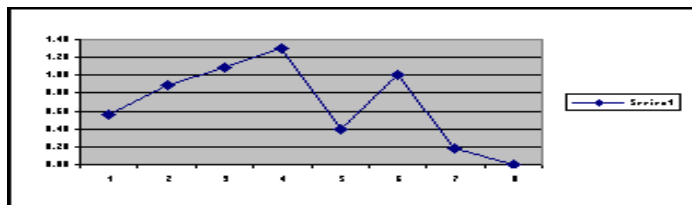
Figure I: Mean Errors for 11 Students in Initial Position, Word Discrimination Task
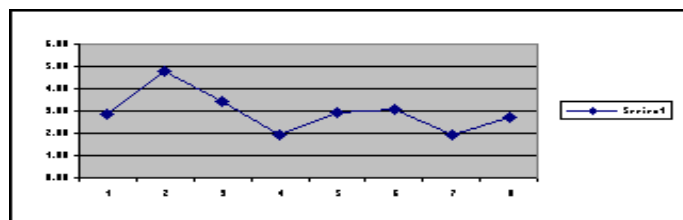
Figure II: Mean Errors for 11 Students in Initial Position, Word Identification Task
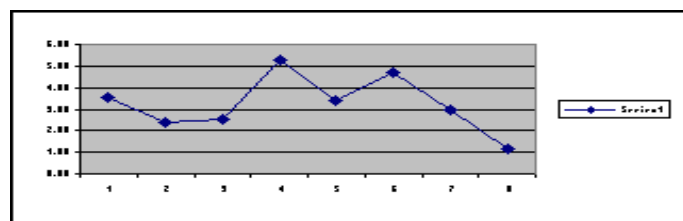
Figure III: Mean Errors for 11 Students in Initial Position, Sentence Identification Task

Table III shows the 12 pairs of words; 8 words had the target sound d/th in the initial position, 2 words had the target sound in the medial position and 2 words had the target sound in the final position. When /ð/ was in initial position, there was improvement between the first and last session in all three tasks: word discrimination (WD), word identification (WI), and sentence identification (SI).

In medial position, there was improvement only in word discrimination. And when /ð/ was in final position, no improvement was observed in any of the tasks (see Table II for a summary of these results).

TABLE III:
IMPROVEMENT OBSERVED IN TASKS AND POSITIONS FOR 11 STUDENTS*

Tasks ↓ Position →	Initial	Medial	Final
Word discrimination	Yes	Yes	No
Word Identification	Yes	No	No
Sentence Identification	Yes	No	No

*Improvement is defined as an increase in scores after 6 sessions of intervention

It should be noted that of the 12 pairs of words, eight had the target sound in initial position, whereas only two were in each medial and final positions. The low number of instances in medial and final positions might not have offered enough opportunities for processing the distinction between the two target sounds (/d/ versus /ð/), resulting in a lack of improvement in these two positions.

In addition to the amount of input being responsible for the difference in improvement in the three different positions, Spanish phonological transfer processes might have been a factor. As indicated earlier, the sound [ð] does exist in Spanish, not as a phoneme in itself, but as a variation (or allophone) of /d/ that occurs only in intervocalic position (and between a vowel and a liquid /r/, as in "arder" [arðér] *to burn*). Thus, the contrast between the two sounds does not occur in absolute initial position. This makes the processing of the distinction between the two sounds easier when the sound appears in initial position, since it is new, and therefore more salient, to Spanish speakers. Similarly, a cause for the total lack of improvement in final position might be the fact that, in Spanish, consonantal sounds in word-final position lose their distinctive features. Therefore, faced with the task of processing a new phonological contrast (/d/ versus /δ/), non-existing in their first language in any position, subjects had more difficulty processing this distinction in final position.

After comparing the mean of errors across tasks and word positions, we determined that there was no observable pattern indicating that some word pairs were more difficult than others. Sometimes specific word pairs would be difficult in word discrimination and sentence identification tasks, but easy in word identification task (e.g., Dave/they've); other times they would be difficult in word discrimination and word identification, but easy in sentence identification (e.g., Dan/than). Factors contributing to this lack of homogeneity might be random, or the entropy guiding it might be too complex to be discovered and reported in this article.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study was a 20-training session intervention posed to help ELL students become aurally aware of the differences between two phonemes that do not exist in their native language, and incorporate the correct grapheme in their writing of words. Results of this study indicate positive changes in the students' discrimination, identification and production of the grapheme.

There are reasons to support why these students were able to become proficient. Most importantly, students were trained to perceive the difference between two similar sounds and to associate them with the correct grapheme. This pull-out 15-minute intervention occurred consistently two times per week during the course of the semester. The students knew when they came to the classroom that they were learning the differences between their languages (Spanish) and English. This awareness alone had a positive impact (Helman, 2004). Acquiring literacy in English is tied to and builds upon literacy in Spanish (Fashola, et al., 1996). Also, the intervention was strategically planned to scaffold students learning of the sounds by first focusing on perception, then assigning the correct grapheme to the sound, and finally producing the correct grapheme. This gradual release of information allowed for the appropriate processing of the English phonemic system. This study aimed to specifically build on how to teach transitional orthography so bilingual students can understand the orthographic principles in both languages (Fashola, et al.1996; Jimenez, Garc á, & Pearson, 1996; P érez Ca ñado, 2005).

V. CONCLUSION

Students become successful when teachers provide explicit instruction through auditory and grapheme training. Moats (2009) outlined how particularly important this is for second language learners who "are most dependent on good instruction to overcome their disadvantages" (p. 380.) She also stressed the importance of teachers' expertise in phonology and graphemes correspondence if they are to help their students become better spellers.

The findings of this study underscore the importance of Moats' (2009) point. Teachers should train ELL students of Spanish language background in the perception of pairs of English phonemes that do not contrast in Spanish, such as /d/ and /ð/, which result in spelling errors.

This training should start with discrimination and identification of sounds in initial position, since this position seems to offer more opportunities for success, and then continue with medial and final position, giving greater attention to the latter, which might be the one that presents more obstacles for Spanish speakers. Other pairs of sounds that are distinct phonemes in English but not in Spanish are /b/-/v/ (as in *bat/vat*), /s/-/z/ (as in *sip/zip*), /t/-/}/ (as in *clot/cloth*), /ʃ/-/tʃ/ (as in *share/chair*), and /j/-/tʃ/ (as in *joke/choke*), among others. It is recommended that the training described here be replicated with these other pairs of sounds.

In addition, this training could also be applied to ELLs with native languages other than Spanish. For example, Arabic speakers cannot perceive the difference between the two phonemes in the pair /p/-/b/ (e.g., park/bark); Korean speakers have trouble with /p/-/f/ (e.g., pork/fork); Japanese speakers, with /ɹ/-/l/ (e.g., rake/lake); … etc. An intervention to help these learners could be designed to target the problematic phonemes by following the same steps presented in this study.

A. Limitations

Several limitations of the study need to be addressed. First, this study included a small sample size which limits the ability to generalize to other populations. Second, while the gains showed that students improved significantly in their ability to produce the correct grapheme when listening to a dictated sentence, little instruction was given to more holistic literacy experiences. The regular classroom teachers were expected to fulfill this responsibility, but there was minimal connection between this intervention and classroom literacy practices. Third, one test was given for the pre and post assessments. We must recognize that this one-time assessment does not document success over the course of time to determine the true impact on change and if this learning will be maintained. Fourth, a confounding factor is that of maturation, in which children are expected to make progress as a result of instruction over a period of time. Fifth, we served dual roles as instructors and researchers, which are both a strength and a limitation. Our beliefs, viewpoints and bias may have indirectly impacted our teaching and perception of our learners.
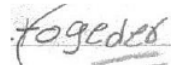
B. Future Research

There are several possibilities for future research. It would be worthwhile to conduct a similar study of a short intervention with a control group to determine differences in achievement. Another study should take place in second to fifth grade classrooms during the course of a school year with control and experimental groups. Standardized assessments could be used to determine the amount of growth and whether it is significant. Ideally, conducting a long-term study, following the students through consequent grades, would provide information about the long-term effects on students' literacy development.
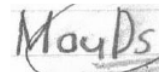
In sum, it was the goal of this intervention to provide students with the ability to discriminate English sounds and be able to correctly spell words containing those sounds. The ELL students in this study were able to master this knowledge in a relatively short amount of time. In conclusion, this study supports the teaching of English phonemes not found in native languages of ELL students. This provides students with the ability to be successful in their English writing (Bloodgood, 1991; Pérez Cañado, 2005; Schlagel, 2002).

APPENDIX I SAMPLES OF PRE-TEST MISSPELLING
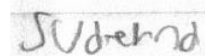
- "together" >*together

- "mouths" > *mouds

- "Southern" > *Soudern

González-Bueno & Massengill,
University of Kansas, 2006

APPENDIX II PRE-POST-TEST

Directions: "I am going to read you a sentence. Please spell the words as best as you can. Write down all the sounds that you hear. I will say the sentence several times."
Words containing targeted sound (/ð/ are italicize).
1. Those of the southern and northern areas are still writhing and seething.
2. Breathe the breeze, loathe the lows, and soothe the Sues.
3. Rather than loathing their mothers, soothe their fathers.
4. Bathing in the bays is soothing to those teething brothers.
5. Dan would rather scythe in wetter weather.
6. Their dare was to Dan rather than those dozing northerners.
7. Ether either makes Thor writhe and seethe.
8. Though dough is worthy, it is worthier with their father's tithe.
9. That thatch there on their thighs, although sheathed, is weathered.
10. Breeding breathing southern otters in the north is worth thousands to them.

Appendix III

COMPLETE LIST OF SENTENCES USED IN THIS STUDY

Sentence Identification Answer Sheet	
Day passed quickly.	They passed quickly.
They couldn't breed.	They couldn't breathe.
Dale, say the words.	They'll say the words.
It's easier done, Dan said.	It's easier done than said.
She does dare at her house.	She does it there, at her house.
Dave said the sentence.	They've said the sentence.
A bear came out of a den.	A bear came out of it, then.
I got one doe.	I got one, though.
I want to doze.	I want two of those.
That header would look nice in my room.	That heather would look nice in my room.
Those were nice odes.	Those were nice oaths.
He is so wordy!	He is so worthy!

*Targeted words are underlined

APPENDIX IV

Auditory Training
Answer Sheets Samples
Word Discrimination Task

1.

Igual	Diferente

2.

Igual	Diferente

Word and Sentences Identification Tasks

¿Cuál?

A   B

6wib

1	🔊	✔	
2	🔊		
3	🔊		
4	🔊		
5	🔊		
6	🔊		
7	🔊		
8	🔊		
9	🔊		
10	🔊		

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

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Manuela González-Bueno is originally from Seville, Spain but lives in Olathe, Kansas. She holds a Ph.D. degree in Spanish (1995) with specialization in applied linguistics by The Pennsylvania State University, and a *Licenciatura* in Hispanic Philology, concentration in Linguistics, from the University of Seville, Spain.

She is currently an Associate Professor of Foreign Language Education at the University of Kansas in Lawrence, Kansas. Some of her published works include: "Text Messaging in a Foreign Language" *The Language Educator, 4*, 5 (2009): 45-49. "The Use of Periodicals in the Foreign Language Classroom from the Perspective of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning." *NECTFL Review*, 60, 2007, and "Articulatory Difficulties in the Acquisition of Spanish /r/ in a Bilingual Context." In Cohen, J., McAlister, K., Rolstad, K. & MacSwan, J. (Eds.) *ISB4*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press. (2005): 914-934. Her research interests are in the application of second language acquisition theories to the teaching of foreign languages, the acquisition and teaching of foreign language pronunciation, and technology use in the foreign language classroom.

Dr. González-Bueno is a member of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) and the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP). She serves as a member of the World Language Advisory Council for KSDE.

Donita J. Massengill Shaw is from Olathe, Kansas. She holds a Ph.D. degree (2002) in Curriculum & Instruction with specialization in reading by the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas; M.A. in Reading Education (1994) from Andrews University, Berrien Springs, Michigan; B.S. in Elementary Education (1993) also from Andrews University.

She is currently an Associate Professor of literacy education at the University of Kansas in Lawrence, Kansas. Some of her published works include 1) Massengill Shaw, D. (2011). The effect of two handwriting approaches, D'Nealian and Sunwrite on kindergartners' letter formations. *Early Childhood Education Journal*. Published online February 18, 2011. DOI 10.1007/s10643-011-0444-2. 2) Massengill Shaw, D., & Mahlios, M. (2011). Literacy metaphors of pre-service elementary teachers: Do they change after instruction? Which metaphors are stable? How do they connect to theories? *Journal of Education for Teaching, 37*(1), 77-92. 3) Massengill Shaw, D., & Berg, M. (2008). Effects of a Word Study intervention on spelling accuracy among low-literate adults. *Adult Basic Education and Literacy Journal, 2*(3), 131-139. Her research interests are in the area of adult literacy, teacher education for pre-service and in-service educators, and early literacy.

Dr. Shaw is a member of the Literacy Research Association and the International Reading Association. She serves on the J. Michael Parker Award Committee for the Literacy Research Association and the Studies and Research: Grants Subcommittee for the International Reading Association.

Re-evaluation of Internationally and Locally Developed ELT Materials in Iran: A Bimodal Approach to Material Development

Mohammad Reza Talebinezhad
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran
Email: rtalebinezhad@yahoo.com

Masoud Mahmoodzadeh
Shaikhbahee University, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed to investigate the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory in a selection of both internationally-developed (namely, *Interchange 3, American Headway 4, & Summit 1*) and locally-developed ELT textbooks (namely, the English textbooks used in Iranian high schools) which are frequently and widely used in Iran. The purpose of this research was first to find out to what extent the textbooks in question follow the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory and second to see if there is any significant difference between the internationally-developed and locally-developed ELT textbooks concerning pedagogical applications of bimodality theory. To this end, the individual textbooks along with their respective teacher's editions were scrutinized closely in terms of the utilized pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory. The quantitative analysis of the data revealed that pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory appear to be significantly more applied in the design of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. Moreover, the detailed examination of the data also suggested that perhaps one of the main reasons for the inefficiency of the locally-developed ELT textbooks (i.e. the English textbooks used in Iranian high schools) is the marginality of the pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory in them. Thus, in terms of the possible implications of this study, it is suggested that the locally-developed ELT textbooks under study need to be modified in order to be more in line with the pedagogical objectives of bimodality theory.

Index Terms—Bimodality Theory, modal principles and techniques, ELT textbooks, ELT teacher's editions

I. INTRODUCTION

During the last few decades, a huge diversity of theories and assumptions on Second Language Teaching (SLT) have been proposed, all claiming to account for success documented in the domain of second language teaching and learning. Yet, despite their early relative success from a methodological standpoint, concerns have always been raised about the pedagogical consequences of devising such teaching practices, learning materials, and language syllabuses. And, in fact, as such methods or approaches have intended to implement their theories and assumptions in the relevant teaching contexts, they have failed to meet the needs and expectations of their target language learners to a great extent. The above methodological concerns relate to the notion of *SLT Dilemma* (Danesi, 2003) which explains that despite considerable research on SLA and SLT, none of the proposed methods and approaches in the past has tacked this dilemma successfully, and thus language learners rarely achieve high levels of proficiency, irrespective of their background or the employed methodology. However, bimodality theory which is one of the recent views of language learning and teaching has attempted to resolve the above dilemma. It claims that neuroscientific constructs could have pedagogical consequences, and that the functions associated with both hemispheres of the brain should be taken into account in Second Language Teaching (SLT), that is, structuring classroom input, designing syllabuses, and doing all the things that are required for carrying out SLT in a classroom environment.

However, as Danesi (2003) discusses, bimodality theory, one of the recent views on SLT which ushered in a new era of research in second language learning and teaching, suggests that the reason that so many methods and approaches in SLT have relatively tended to fail lies in the fact that all of them were in part unimodal, that is, focusing on only one of the two hemispheres of the brain. For example, on the one hand, the methods such as Grammar Translation Method or Audio-lingual Method focused only on the left hemisphere (L-Mode) while, on the other hand, the Communicative, Humanistic, and Neurolinguistic methods and approaches overemphasized the right hemisphere (R-Mode) to the detriment of the L-Mode.

It is safe to mention that the ELT textbooks and materials are also involved in resolving the issue of SLT Dilemma. And, as a result, many studies have been carried out to evaluate ELT textbooks and materials. And, thus, many textbook-evaluation checklists have been introduced (Williams, 1983; Sheldon, 1988; Ur, 1996; to name but a few). But

perhaps, no such studies have focused on the merits and demerits of the ELT textbooks and materials with regard to the application of the pedagogical principles of bimodality theory. So the present study truly aimed to explore ELT textbooks and materials from a totally different viewpoint to material evaluation, that is, from bimodal approach. More particularly, the study attempted to examine and evaluate the currently used ELT materials in Iran with reference to the pedagogical principles derived from bimodality theory. However, more studies, no doubt, are required to validate the findings of the study because the evaluation of all locally and internationally-produced ELT materials used in Iran is beyond the scope of this study.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study attempted to answer the following questions:

1) To what extent are the modal techniques used in the design of the learning activities of both the locally-developed and internationally-developed ELT material under analysis?

2) Is there any significant difference between the locally-developed and internationally-developed ELT materials under analysis in terms of the utilized modal techniques of bimodality theory in the design of their learning activities?

3) To what extent do the locally-developed and internationally-developed ELT materials under analysis follow the pedagogical principles of bimodality theory in terms of their selection or grading of content and their employed methodologies or teaching procedures?

4) Is there any significant difference between the locally-developed and internationally-developed ELT materials under analysis concerning the application of pedagogical principles of bimodality theory?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

As mentioned earlier, the methodological concerns discussed here relate to the notion of SLT Dilemma (Danesi, 2003) which explains that despite considerable research on SLA and SLT, language learners rarely achieve high levels of proficiency, irrespective of their background or the employed methodology. However, to date, some noteworthy reactions have been put forward for the dilemma, namely Kumaravadivelu' (1994) *post-method pedagogy*, and Ellis's (2003) *principles of instructed language learning*. But there is one reaction to the dilemma introduced by Danesi (2003) in which the SLT Dilemma is dealt with differently in comparison with the above-mentioned reactions. Danesi (2003) proposed *bimodality theory*, the theory which attempts to explain and also resolve the SLT Dilemma based on the latest findings of neurolinguistic research and brain studies. To elaborate more on bimodality theory, the tenets and principles of this theory are briefly discussed below.

A. Bimodality Theory

The concept of bimodality in second language acquisition and learning was developed by Marcel Danesi (1986). The impact of neuroscience on language learning has established, as a fact, that "language learning is a multi-dimensional process that requires an equally versatile and multi-faceted pedagogical response" (Danesi, 1987, p.379). In effect, in terms of the nature of the cerebral learning system, that is, the two hemispheres of the brain being specialized according to function, the only viable teaching approach is one which caters in a complementary fashion to the student's global language processing (Cicogna & Nuessel, 1993).

As Danesi (2003) states, any instructional system that privileges only one of the two modes of brain is bound to fail sooner or later because such a system has been unimodally developed. According to Kim-Rivera (1998, p. 97) the two hemispheres process language input as a unit and are thus complementary: the left hemisphere enables us to analyze individual concepts, while the right hemisphere allows us to synthesize information into discourse.

The research and advances of neurophysiology have habitually affected language pedagogy, with the last two decades cultivating bimodality to a greater degree and exhibiting its most prosperous offerings. At the end of the 19th century, the designation of the left hemisphere as *major* or *dominant* and the right as *weak* or *minor* caused teaching methods to be unimodal, that is, to concentrate on the structural form of language (Danesi, 1988). The pedagogical implications of this signified a tendency to neglect those features associated with the right hemisphere (usually the creative/artistic qualities). Further research continued to strengthen the views that the left hemisphere was programmed for form and the right controlled content, in that it deciphered new stimuli in an efficient manner (Danesi, 1988). Therefore, the methods that pursued grammatical linguistic competence only exercised the left hemisphere actively (cited in Antenos-Conforti, 2001, pp.30-31).

Although the techniques utilized in inductivist and deductivist methods focused on developing L-Mode control of second language, it should be noted that some of the techniques used in the inductivist method, for instance the use of the situational practice, the incorporation of visual stimuli, the contextualization of practice routines, etc., did have an R-Mode focus. This might explain why they have survived to this day as effective techniques on their own (Danesi, 2003).

However, on the other hand, Communicative, Humanistic, Neurolinguistic methods and approaches were designed with an opposite unimodal bias. They typically overemphasized and utilized R-Mode functions to the detriment L-Mode functions. This is why they always generated much interest at first, but seldom produced high level of proficiency at the

end of a course of study. Moreover, it should be noted that no method or approach has ever been designed intentionally to be unimodal. It is more accurate to think of SLT practices generally as placeable on a continuum with two extreme L-Mode and R-Mode endpoints(i.e. GTM & Silent Way methods, respectively)at which bimodality theory suggests the mid-point of this continuum as the most appropriate for SLT practice(Danesi, 2003, p.49).

As Kim-Rivera (1998) notes, the two hemispheres process language input as a unit and are thus complementary: the left hemisphere enables us to analyze individual concepts, while the right hemisphere allows us to synthesize information into discourse. Nevertheless, as Danesi and Mollica(1988) noted, bimodality does not dictate any specific instructional routine or style, it can be adapted into any textbook, regardless of emphasis. Thus, this theory is compatible with the notion of proficiency in that it is a multifaceted concept that adapts to all methodologies, approaches, and techniques.

B. Modal Principles of Bimodality Theory

They are four pedagogical principles which are derived from the recent relevant brain research corresponding directly to the application of bimodality theory in SLT. Danesi (2003) introduced these principles as follows*: (1) the modal flow principle; (2) the modal focusing principle; (3) the contextualization; (4) the conceptualization principle*. The consolidation of these principles would effectively enhance the learning of the language, as they integrate both structure and communication, and thus educate both hemispheres at the same time. Danesi and Mollica (1988) conducted a study which attempted to substantiate the claims of bimodality theory. It was a comparison study of the measurable learning outcomes of teaching in a bimodal fashion, employing techniques suggested by the principles, and in an L-mode dominant manner and an R-mode dominant manner. The "very rapid assessment" sought the viability of pursuing bimodality, and revealed that, with the three groups as distinguished above, the bimodal group equaled both the L-mode and R-mode groups in their respective strengths and was the far superior group in regard to general proficiency and creativity.

C. The Modal Flow Principle

By definition, the modal flow principle (also known as modal directionality principle) signifies that at first the experiential plane is activated (the R-mode), then new input flows to the analytical (the L-mode), as was generally the case with the inductive principle (Mollica & Danesi 1998, p.209). However, the principle of modal directionality should be utilized only with new input, so that foreign language learners may experience a new structure or concept before shifting to the formal explanation. Young and Danesi (2001) discuss that during the initial learning stages students need to assimilate new input through observation, induction, role-playing, simulation, oral tasks, and various kinds of interactive activities. But we would quickly add that formal explanations, drills, and other L-Mode procedures must follow these stages, since we have found that control of structure will not emerge spontaneously.

The modal directionality principle implies, above all else, that the teacher should leave ample room for student improvisation during the early learning stages. Instructional techniques which focus on explanations will be of little value, since the students generally have no preexisting L-Mode schemata for accommodating the new input directly. In order to make the new material accessible to the L-Mode (intake), therefore, the early stages should involve teacher and learner alike in activities enlisting exploration, imagination, spontaneity, and induction. Once the initial learning stages have been completed, the teacher can "shift modes" and begin to focus more on formal, mechanical, rule-based instruction (Young & Danesi, 2001, p.86). Thus, modal directionality can be seen to be a different version of the oldest principle in teaching - the inductive principle. But unlike its use in strictly inductivist methods, it does not require the deployment of induction for all learning tasks, only those that involve new input. Thus, if a learning task contains knowledge or input that the learner can already accommodate cognitively, directionality can be efficiently avoided. To support this principle, there is a lot of indirect evidence throughout the SLA and SLT literatures. For example, Jeffries (1985) has showed that the use of grammatical rules to start a new unit of learning (an R-Mode practice) poses a serious obstacle to class room acquisition. The modal directionality principle thus claims: (1) that experiential forms of tutoring belong to the initial learning stages, (2) that teaching should move progressively towards a more formal, analytical style in the later stages, and (3) the creative utilization of the new input belongs to the final stages. And, these stages can be called simply an R-Mode stage, an L-Mode stage, and an intermodal stage respectively (cited in Danesi, 2003, pp. 51-52). Danesi (2001) also maintains to identify the general procedures being utilized in any teaching context based on the modal flow principle as follows:

During an R-Mode Stage:
*Classroom activities should be student-centered and involve students and teacher in a complementary fashion.
*Novel input should be structured in ways that activate sensory, experiential, inductive forms of learning (dialogues, questioning strategies, simulations, etc.).
*The students' inductive and exploratory tendencies should be encouraged to operate freely when introducing new information.
During an L-Mode Stage:
*The focus now shifts to the teacher. The teacher should explain the structural and conceptual features of the new materials clearly using deductive and inductive techniques as warranted by the situation.
*Explanations, drills, etc. should follow the experiential learning phases.

*Focusing on some problematic aspect of the subject being taught is to be encouraged if a student appears to have difficulty grasping it or using it with appropriate comparison to the NL and with suitable exercise materials.

During an Intermodal Stage:

*The learner should be allowed to employ the new materials to carry out real- life verbal tasks, but only after he/she shows the ability or willingness to do so.

*Teaching new things or discussing matters of form and structure during this stage should be avoided.

*Students should be allowed to find solutions to problems of communication on their own.

*Role-playing and work in pairs or groups is advisable for most students, although some may not wish to participate. The latter can be assigned other kinds of creative tasks (e.g. writing).

D. The Modal Focusing Principle

Modal focusing principle is required at points in the learning process when, for instance, a learner appears to need help in overcoming an error pattern that has become an obstacle to learning. To this end, L-Mode focusing allows the students an opportunity to focus on formal matters for accuracy and control while R-mode focusing attempts to focus on matters of understanding and conceptualization. According to Young & Danesi (2001), the modal focusing principle in no way implies that mechanical practice be conducted in an uncontextualized way. On the contrary, meaningful contexts should always be provided not only for new input, but also for focusing routines. This allows the R-Mode to complement and strengthen the intake operations of the L-Mode, especially during more mechanically- oriented focusing tasks. Contextualized instruction enables the learners to relate L-Mode form to R-Mode content (p.89).

Also, the modal focusing principle stresses the fact that, at some time during the learning process, the student may need to concentrate on one mode or the other to digest new data, reinforce acquired structures or vocabulary, or simply think of what to say. 'True acquisition can be said to occur when the students' attempts at discourse formulation can be seen to enlist both modes in a cooperative way" (Mollica and Danesi l998, p.210).

E. The Contextualization Principle

As discussed by Danesi (2003), memorizing or pronouncing words in isolation, rehearsing speech formulas, or even practicing grammar without reference to some situation that typically entails them, rarely leads to learning. The reason is that language derives its meaning (*usage*) primarily from the context in which it is involved (i.e. its *use*). So, without sufficient context, it is unlikely that the brain can assimilate new input in any mnemonically functional way.

Danesi(2003) also maintains that during an R-Mode stage, the new material must contain references to cultural concepts in order for the brain to detect the appropriate meaning potential of the new structures whereas, during an L-Mode stage, the practice and rehearsal of the new structures is greatly enhanced if practical or conceptual information is provided. Essentially, there are two types of cultural techniques: (1) *Cultural contextualization techniques*, which are designed to provide culturally appropriate information that allows students to relate the novel linguistic input to cultural concepts, symbolism, rituals during an R-Mode stage. (2) *Practical contextualization techniques*, which refer to the use of meaningful information or reference to realistic situations in the design of exercises and activities used during an L-Mode stage (pp. 57-59).To sum up, by contextualization, Danesi means the creation of an environment in which an activity may be situated. This means the avoidance of structure-based pattern drills that focus on linguistic forms rather than the context in which conversation takes place (Cicogna & Nuessel, 1993). In fact, when the learning task is L-Mode, supporting contexts should be provided in a process called contextualization. Among contextualization techniques are the use of open dialogues, authentic texts, and realia. Through these techniques grammar can be taught in context (Kim-Rivera, 1998, p.97).

Danesi (1987) states an example in verb conjugation and the differentiation of verb tense which promotes contextualization through the inclusion of a logical nexus in the sentence so that the exercises do not occur in isolation (i.e., only the L-mode is activated). By utilizing a nexus, the R-mode feature is triggered, and the student focuses simultaneously on situational principle and situational context (in choosing the correct verb form). The overall effect of contextualization allows the teacher to deal with grammar as a 'process' rather than a meaningless form (cited in Antenos-Conforti, 2001, pp.32-33).

F. The Conceptualization Principle

Danesi (2003) discusses that a common observation of teachers is that students often produce L2 messages which are "semantically anomalous" when they attempt to speak or write spontaneously without some form of guidance. Danesi identifies the source of such anomaly in the unconscious tendency of learners to put together L2 messages on the basis of L1 concepts. Thus, the language teacher must ensure that the two systems- the linguistic and the conceptual- are interrelated during all aspects and stages of instruction and practice.

Moreover, Danesi (2003) maintains that in terms of dealing with incoming conceptual structures, the language teacher should attempt to apply the first two pedagogical principles(i.e. modal flow & modal focusing principles) respectively while bearing in mind that conceptualization can manifest itself in one of these three ways: (1) it can be *isomorphic*(which of course rarely occurs), that is, L1 and L2 reflect the same conceptual structures ;(2) *overlapping*, that is, the conceptual structures have overlapping domains;(3) *differentiated,* that is, L1 and L2 reflect totally different conceptual structures.

This principle attempts to step outside of the learner to consider how the L2 being learned may influence the individual, the internal restructuring which is brought about by the acquisition of L2, and the compromises which must be reached in order for a language to be acquired and come to be integrated into the individual's personality. If language itself may be seen as human - a container for the life experiences of a whole culture or people- then one cannot approach language teaching or even communication as a mathematical equation where $1 + 1 = 2$. Each word in the target language is represented by a sound: each sound is linked to a meaning and image/concept which may or may not coincide with the learner's L1 (Colella, 1999, p.142).

In addition, Danesi (1993) argues that grammatical and lexical categories are also correlated to concept categories and experience. The student learning a L2 must thus learn about the life of the language through his/her understanding of concept boundaries, metaphorical usage, proverbs, and conceptual domains. Included in this domain of language are also al1 the nonverbal language of a target culture such as gestures, tone, social interactions and register.

The metaphorical nature of a language is not only limited to conceptual domains but it has been confirmed that grammatical structures also share this attribute. Consider for example, the use of the Italian prepositions *in* and *a* to indicate traveling to cities, regions, countries, or large islands. The Italian *in/a* can be contrasted to the English *to*, which not only does not share a similar dichotomy of containment, but also conceptualize traveling to a location as a mere matter of movement and directionality(Danesi, 1998).

G. The Modal Techniques

According to Danesi (2003), a technique is any procedure that can be used to help accomplish certain objectives or tasks in class. It can be an explanation of grammar, a type of exercise or activity, a test, etc. that has an identifiable R-Mode, or L-Mode, or intermodal focus in its design. These techniques can be categorized generally as *Structural Techniques*, *Visual Techniques*, *Ludric Techniques, Humor Technique*s, and *Role-Playing Techniques* (p.104).

According to Danesi (2003), the aim of structural techniques is the development of some aspect of linguistic, communicative, or conceptual competence. These techniques include teacher explanations of grammar and vocabulary, classroom exercises and activities. Most of these techniques have either an R-Mode or an L-Mode focus while some are also intermodal, such as translation exercises or cloze test techniques. Visual techniques provide either: (1) visual contexts to accompany the verbal input, or else (2) provide illustrative support for some explanation, exercise, activity, etc. Thus, they can provide crucial R-Mode contextualization for learning. In addition, in terms of conceptualization principle, they can facilitate the development of the conceptual competence in learners if the provided visual imagery is illustrative of the conceptual domain being learned.

Danesi (2003) also maintains that ludric techniques refer to any game- playing or problem-solving techniques including crosswords, word searches, scrambled words, interactive games, board games, etc. These techniques fall into two categories: *Language Teaching Games (LTGs)* which are useful during intermodal stages; and *Language Teaching Puzzles (LTPs)*.The LTP techniques are also of two types: *form-based LTPs* which promote L-Mode form-based language learning; and *concept-based LTPs* which promote both R-Mode communication-based learning and conceptual fluency. Riddles, logical deductions, simple mathematical puzzles fall into this category. Humor techniques are designed to evoke humor with a crucial R-Mode focus and are useful to develop conceptual fluency in learners. And they are also in line with the conceptualization and contextualization principles. And finally, role-playing techniques are designed to involve learners to communicative together in a creative fashion during intermodal stages; and they include pair work or group work tasks which are particularly useful for bimodal learning.

As mentioned by Antenos-Conforti (2001), due to the possible controversies regarding techniques that may be questionably bimodal, Danesi (1991) examined the issues of how psychologically meaningful it was to label technique X as right-hemispheric and Y as left-hemispheric. The method used was Lateral Eye Movement (LEM), which is based on the premise that in most (right-handed) people the activation of left-hemispheric functions causes the eyes to shift their glance to the right. This quick assessment of the bimodal classifications of techniques resulted in the LEM findings that did not contradict the techniques used in the Danesi and Mollica study (1988).

IV. THE STUDY

To find answers to the above questions, the researchers adopted the Biomodality Models based on Danesi (2003) as the framework for the analysis of the course books in question. The following is the procedure for the description of the materials used and the steps taken in analyzing them.

A. The Corpus

The materials used in the present study include five ELT textbooks along with their respective teacher's editions which all serve as the corpus of the study. Moreover, the materials fall into two distinct groups: two locally-produced ELT textbooks plus their teacher's editions, and three internationally-produced ELT textbooks plus their teacher's editions.

The former group consisting of two locally-produced ELT textbooks (two English books used in Iranian high schools) plus their respective teacher's edition are listed below:

1) Birjandi, P. et al. (2008). *English Book 1*. Tehran: Iran Publications.

2) Birjandi, P., Noroozi, M., Mahmoodi, Gh.H. (2009). *English Book 2*. Tehran: Iran Publications.

Birjandi, P. (1994). *Teacher's Guide Book 1 and 2*. Tehran: Iran Publications.

The rationale and criteria for the selection of these textbooks are as follows:

a) This series of textbooks which have been prescribed for use in Iranian high schools by the Ministry of Education are used in Iran to a great extent. Thus, they represent a relatively suitable sample of the locally-developed ELT textbooks already in use in Iran.

b) They are claimed to have been written and designed by some well-known Iranian ELT experts.

c) They are all assumed to cover the four macro-skills throughout their syllabuses.

d) Finally, these two English textbooks also contain available teacher's editions which have been distributed only to high school English teachers by the Ministry of Education in Iran. Thus, their teacher's editions can manifest the types of the methodologies and teaching procedures that teachers are assumed to employ in their teaching performance. Also, it should be mentioned that the content of these two textbooks has been carefully examined from 1994 to 2009 and, since no worthwhile change was found in the compared textbooks, the only available teacher's edition for these textbooks published in 1994 was used as a teacher's edition for these textbooks. It is worth mentioning that *English Book 3* which is also taught to senior high school students is not included in the corpus of this study since no respective published teacher's edition was found for this textbook. In other words, this textbook was excluded from the initially-developed corpus of the present study since it did not fulfill the last criterion for selecting the corpus of the study.

The latter group consisting of the three internationally-produced ELT textbooks plus their respective teacher's editions are listed below:

1) Richards, J., Hull, J., Proctor, S. (2005a). *Interchange 3(3ʳᵈ).* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., Hull, J., & Proctor, S. (2005b). *Interchange: teacher's edition 3(3ʳᵈ).* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

2) Saslow, J., Ascher, A. (2006). *Summit: English for Today's World 1*. Longman: Pearson Education.

Saslow, J., Ascher, A., Tiberio, S.C. (2006). *Summit 1: Teacher's Edition and Lesson Planner.* Longman: Pearson Education.

3) Soars, L., Soars, J. (2005). *American Headway 4.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Soars, L., Soars, J., & Sayer, M. (2005). *American Headway Teacher's Book 4.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

To characterize the features of the above-mentioned textbooks, they are elaborated below in terms of the established criteria for their selection which can directly contribute to the aim of the study. The criteria for the selection of these textbooks are:

a) They are widely used in foreign language institutes in Iran, and that they are communicative textbooks covering the four macro-skills throughout their syllabuses. However, it should be noted that the textbooks in question represent a relatively suitable sample of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks used frequently in Iran. And that this sample is by no means absolutely prefect in terms of representing all the internationally-developed ELT textbooks widely used in Iran.

b) In case of consistency in the chosen textbooks, much attention has been paid to selecting these textbooks because they all represent the same level of proficiency (i.e. Upper-Intermediate).

c) They have been recently designed by some internationally well-known applied linguists and experienced ELT experts such as Jack C. Richards or John and Liz Soars. And that the authors of such textbooks have expressed that much attention has been paid to designing them according to the recent developments in the theories of SLA and SLT.

d) They also contain available teacher's editions which can indicate the types of the methodology and teaching procedures that teachers are supposed to deal with in their teaching performance.

e) Finally, they have been published by three internationally well-known publishers which have received much world-wide attention and are extensively used around the globe.

Since it was felt that there is a need to examine more than two internationally-developed ELT textbooks meeting the above-mentioned criteria to achieve a more reliable sample in the present study, the latter group includes one more ELT textbook than the former group.

B. Procedure

Following the classification of the materials used as the corpus of the study, the researcher attempted to analyze and evaluate each of them with regard to the application of the pedagogically-oriented principles of bimodality theory.

To begin with, to achieve a suitable sample representing all the full textbooks used in the study, the researcher aimed to scrutinize the first half of the units of these textbooks. To this end, all exercises and activities included in the first half of the units of the textbooks were examined with respect to the frequency of the' *modal categories'* (i.e. R -Mode, L-Mode, or Intermodal) used in their design to identify their main modal status and to figure out to which of these three modal categories they belong. And then, an in-depth discussion of the obtained results was provided to elaborate on them thoroughly.

Secondly, the first half of the units of the individual textbooks and their respective teacher's editions were examined based on the three pedagogical principles of bimodality theory (*i.e. the modal flow principle, the contextualization principle, and the conceptualization principle*) which are described and suggested for the ELT practitioners by Danesi (2003).The obtained results were then discussed in detail to figure out to what extent they follow these pedagogical

principles in terms of their selection or grading of content and also their employed methodologies or teaching procedures.

Also, note that the *modal focusing principle* of *bimodality theory* was first intended to be investigated in detail throughout the textbooks under study. But after the initial examination of the textbooks, it was concluded that this principle perhaps can not be analyzed systematically due to the absence of the practical role of teachers in the present study. In other words, since this principle, unlike the other three principles, necessarily entails the active participation of language teachers to identify the various points in a course of study when there is an urgent need to help individual learners to overcome their learning obstacles, this principle may not be directly applied beforehand in the design of the textbooks and their teacher's editions. To sum up, it seems that ELT textbooks and their teacher's editions can not alone aim to characterize the quality of this particular modal principle effectively unless they totally take into account the crucial role of teachers in applying it practically in different teaching contexts.

However, it is important to note that there are some sections or teaching notes included in the internationally-produced ELT textbooks plus their teacher's editions (e.g. *Checkpoint* section *or Corpus Notes* in *Summit 1, Progress Check* section *or Tip* in *Interchange 3)* which are intended to allow teachers to focus on the progress of learners and also pinpoint any areas of particular difficulty that may require additional instruction and practice. But as was discussed earlier, these sections or teaching notes may not represent the quality of the modal focusing principle in these textbooks effectively due to the absence of the practical role of teachers in this study. Moreover, the analysis of matters such as the physical make-up or the administrative concerns of the materials under evaluation are not dealt with in this study; and also that the type of material evaluation investigated here is a reflective (post-use) material evaluation.

C. Data Analysis

Firstly, through performing a page-by-page systematic quantitative analysis of the exercises and activities included in the first half of the units of the textbooks under study, frequency counts and percentage indexes were reported for their main modal status. Secondly, through a systematic quantitative examination of the first half of the units of the individual textbooks and their respective teacher's editions, frequency counts and percentage indexes were also reported for the occurrence of each of the three pedagogical principles of bimodality theory throughout the different sections of the investigated units in the textbooks. Throughout the data analysis process, the researcher was mindful of the possible occurrence of interpretive biases resulting from distinctive differences in the brand of the ELT textbooks under study (namely, the locally and internationally-developed ELT textbooks).

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To address the first research question, the samples of the textbooks (i.e. all exercises and activities included in the first half of the units of the individual textbooks) were examined with respect to the frequency of the 'modal categories' used in their design to identify their main modal status and to figure out to which of the three modal categories (i.e. R-Mode, L-Mode, Intermodal) they belong. After a close scrutiny of the activities and exercises, they were classified based on their modal category and then frequency counts and percentage indexes were calculated for the scrutinized activities and exercises of the textbooks. It is worth mentioning that some learning activities in the textbooks consist of two individually different activities within themselves in terms of modal categories, but labeled as just one single learning activity. In order to identify correctly the main modal status of these complex learning activities, first they were atomized and then were scrutinized separately with reference to the activity description or explanation provided for them in the teacher's editions.

The results of the analysis are shown below:

TABLE 1.
THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL CATEGORIES USED IN THE LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF INDIVIDUAL TEXTBOOKS.

Textbooks	*No. of units*	*R-Mode*		*L-Mode*		*Intermodal*	
		No.	*% of total*	*No.*	*% of total*	*No.*	*% of total*
English Book 1	5	13	12.6	71	68.9	19	18.4
English Book 2	4	10	11.3	65	73.8	13	14.7
A. Headway 4	6	116	30	194	50.2	77	19.7
Interchange 3	8	93	29.7	81	25.8	139	44.4
Summit 1	5	55	22.7	85	55.1	102	42.1

Note: A. Headway 4 (American Headway 4).

As shown in Table 1, the results reveal that a high percentage of the learning activities of the locally-developed ELT textbooks under investigation are designed with L-Mode focus which are mainly structural techniques including a series of practice drills such as substitutions, transformations, fill-ins, and completions, where as only a small number of the learning activities in these textbooks are designed with R-Mode or Intermodal focus. Moreover, these exercises seem to emphasize the priority of grammatical structures over the communicative skills throughout these textbooks and this is perhaps one of the main demerits of these textbooks in terms of applications of bimodality theory.

In other words, the excess of L-Mode exercises along with the obvious lack of pair work or group work communicative tasks throughout the textbooks in question hinders the applicability of the pedagogical principles of

bimodality theory, since the optimal implementation of these principles entails the design of more R-Mode and Intermodal activities in these textbooks. On the other hand, according to Table 1, the learning activities of the individual internationally-developed ELT textbooks are elaborated below in terms of the utilized modal techniques. To begin with, it should be noted that *American Headway 4* has been designed with fewer Intermodal activities (19.7 %) in comparison with the other two internationally-developed ELT textbooks. In addition, the main features of this particular textbook include numerous structural techniques with L-Mode focus to reinforce the treatment of grammar and vocabulary, a lot of pair work or group work jig-saw activities designed for communicative interaction, numerous use of visual techniques to provide the visual contexts, adequate use of comic strips functioning as humor techniques to enhance the conceptual domains being learned, and finally some role-playing techniques to practice functional language in different social contexts. Also, note that no interactive game was identified in this textbook.

The next internationally-developed ELT textbook, that is, *Interchange 3* consists of fewer L-Mode learning activities as compared with the other two internationally-developed ELT textbooks under study. In addition, this textbook benefits from a few interactive games, an adequate use of visual and role-playing techniques, and also a variety of different pair work and group work communicative tasks such as opinion-sharing activities. Also, note that the lack of humor techniques is clearly evident throughout this textbook. As was mentioned earlier, humor techniques are designed to evoke humor with a crucial R-Mode focus and are useful to develop conceptual fluency in learners. And they are also in line with the conceptualization and contextualization principles. And finally, the last internationally-developed ELT textbook under investigation, that is, *Summit1* like the other two afore-mentioned textbooks benefits from a number of visual techniques used to provide the visual contexts for the tasks or to enhance the learning of the new concepts, a few role-playing techniques, and also numerous pair work and group work activities such as problem-solving activities. Meanwhile, it should be mentioned that this textbook lacks the use of humor techniques and interactive games.

To answer the second research question, the frequencies of the modal categories were compared across the two groups as indicated below:
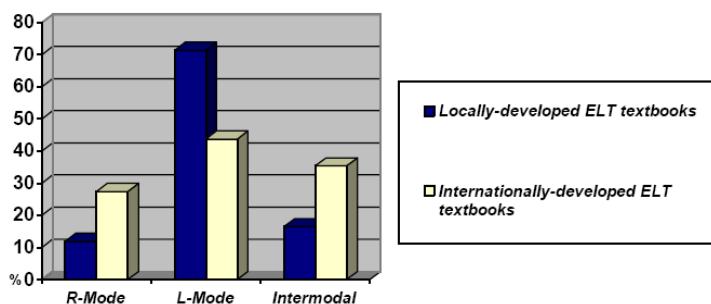
Figure 1. Comparison of the frequency of modal categories used in the learning activities of the textbooks across the two groups

As shown in Figure 1, it seems that the learning activities included in the locally-developed ELT textbooks mostly belong to the L-Mode modal category, since they are designed with L-Mode focus to a great extent (71 %) whereas, only 12 % and 16 % of these learning activities are designed with R-Mode and Intermodal focus respectively. On the other hand, according to Figure 4.1., it seems that clearly fewer L-Mode techniques (43 %) but a lot more R-Mode (27 %) and Intermodal techniques (35 %) have been utilized in the learning activities of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks as compared with the locally-developed ones. To answer the third research question, the frequencies of the utilized pedagogical principles of bimodality theory in different sections of the locally-developed ELT textbooks along with their respective teacher's editions were calculated and then tabulated (See Appendices A & B).

The obtained results suggest that the locally-developed ELT textbooks follow the modal flow principle only in the *Reading* section and that they are not in line with the modal flow principle in other sections. In addition, these textbooks can function more appropriately during the *L-Mode stage* than the *R-Mode stage* or *Intermodal stage*, since they seem to emphasize the priority of grammatical patterns over the communicative skills. Also, it should be noted that the specifications regarding the identified occurrences of the modal flow principle in these textbooks are also presented in the present study (See Appendices F & G).

However, it seems that these textbooks are more likely to follow the application of bimodality theory in terms of the other two pedagogical principles, especially the contextualization principle. Also, in contrast to the internationally-developed ELT textbooks, these ELT textbooks lack the use of designed audio-contexts and only favor the use of visual contexts. Therefore, the locally-developed ELT textbooks may not contextualize or conceptualize the new learning materials in a culturally appropriate fashion due to the absence of the designed audio-contexts. To continue answering the third research question, the frequencies of the utilized pedagogical principles of bimodality theory in different sections of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks along with their respective teacher's editions were also calculated and then tabulated (See Appendices C, D, & E).

According to the obtained results, the internationally-developed ELT textbooks tend to follow the pedagogical principles of bimodality theory to a relatively large extent, since the effective utilization of the pedagogical principles can be clearly seen in the design of the different sections of these textbooks. Moreover, among the ELT textbooks in

question, *Summit 1* seems to have achieved a relatively higher percentage for each individual pedagogical principle. In contrast to the locally-developed ELT textbooks, the internationally-developed ELT textbooks seem to function during the R-Mode stage and Intermodal stage as effectively as during the L-Mode stage. And, both visual and audio contexts along with *questioning strategies* have been used to accompany the new learning materials and consequently activate the crucial R-Mode stage. Also, the specifications concerning the identified occurrences of the modal flow principle in these textbooks are presented in the present study (See Appendices H, I, & J).

To answer the last research question, the frequencies of the three pedagogical principles of bimodality theory were compared across the two groups. The results are shown in the following figure:
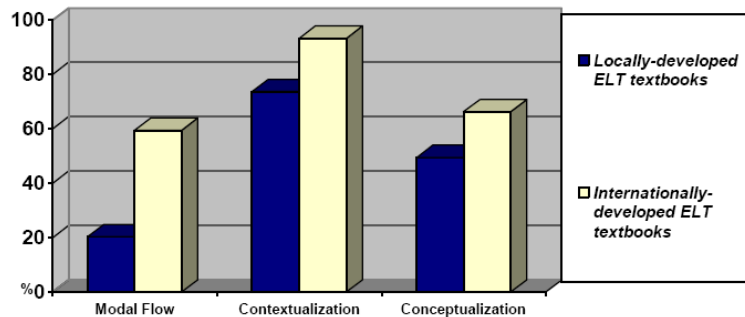
Figure 2. Comparison of the frequency of pedagogical principles of bimodality theory applied in the ELT textbooks and their respective teacher's editions across the two groups.

As shown in Figure 2, the findings suggest that the internationally-developed ELT textbooks are significantly more in line with the application of bimodality theory than the locally-developed ELT textbooks, since the former ELT textbooks exceed the latter ELT textbooks in terms of the applied pedagogical principles of bimodality theory.

Also, more specifically, the above results suggest that the role of the modal flow principle has been greatly marginalized in the design of the latter ELT textbooks. Accordingly, the application of this particular principle is perhaps represented less optimally in the latter ELT textbooks than the former. Furthermore, the results also reveal that the contextualization principle seems to be more applied in the design of both groups of the ELT textbooks as compared with the other two pedagogical principles of bimodality theory.

VI. CONCLUSION

In sum, as mentioned earlier, the present study generally intended to investigate the application of the recently developed principles of bimodality in the design of both the locally-designed and internationally-designed ELT materials used widely in Iran. To this end, the ELT textbooks under investigation along with their respective teacher's editions were meticulously scrutinized to determine the extent to which these materials follow the pedagogical implications provided by bimodality theory.

The results of the present study suggest that the use of modal techniques of bimodality theory is significantly more dominant in the design of the learning activities of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. Thus, the results perhaps confirm that in terms of the shortcomings identified in the learning activities, the locally-developed ELT textbooks need to be revised and revamped in order to be more in line with the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory proposed for the syllabus designers of ELT textbooks. Furthermore, the overall findings of the study indicate that the analyzed pedagogical principles of bimodality theory in the ELT textbooks under study appear to be significantly more applied in the design of the different sections of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. Also, perhaps one of the main reasons that the locally-developed ELT textbooks under study have fulfilled neither the expectations of their EFL learners/teachers nor their syllabus designers is due to the inadequate use of the pedagogical applications of bimodality theory in the design of these textbooks. Thus, it is suggested that identified shortcomings of these textbooks and their teachers' edition need to be modified and improved based on the principles and techniques of bimodality theory to meet the expectations of both their EFL learners/teachers and their syllabus designers. However, as mentioned earlier, one of the limitations of the present study is that the modal focusing principle of bimodality theory has not been analyzed and investigated in this study, since this principle needs to be practically examined in an experimental study aimed to analyze the teaching procedures applied by language teachers in the classroom.

To sum up, based on the practical implications provided in the present study, it is suggested that perhaps one of the crucial reasons for the inefficiency of the locally-produced ELT textbooks (i.e. the English textbooks used in Iranian high schools) is related to the marginality of the pedagogical techniques and principles provided by bimodality theory. In conclusion**,** there may be an essential need for the locally-developed ELT textbooks plus their teacher's editions to be modified by the Iranian syllabus designers to follow and endorse more the practical application of bimodality theory. In terms of the possible suggestions for further research, it is suggested that more similar studies can be planned to validate

the findings of the present study; and also some experimental studies can be carried out investigating practically the application of bimodality theory in EFL/ESL classrooms.

APPENDIX A. THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED IN THE FIRST FIVE UNITS OF ENGLISH BOOK1 AND ITS TEACHER'S EDITION.

Unit Sections	Modal Flow Principle		Contextualization Principle		Conceptualization Principle	
	No.	% of total	No.	% of total	No.	% of total
New Words	0	0	5	100	5	100
Reading	5	100	5	100	2	40
Speak Out	1	20	4	80	2	40
Write It Down	0	0	1	20	1	20
Lan. Functions	0	0	5	100	5	100
Pronunciation	0	0	3	60	0	0

Note: Lan. Function (Language Function).

APPENDIX B. THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED IN THE FIRST FOUR UNITS OF ENGLISH BOOK 2 AND ITS TEACHER'S EDITION.

Unit Sections	Modal Flow Principle		Contextualization Principle		Conceptualization Principle	
	No.	% of total	No.	% of total	No.	% of total
New Words	0	0	4	100	4	100
Reading	4	100	4	100	2	50
Speak Out	1	25	3	75	1	20
Write It Down	0	0	1	25	2	25
Lan. Functions	0	0	4	100	4	100
Pronunciation	0	0	1	25	0	0

Note: Lan. Function (Language Function).

APPENDIX C. THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED IN THE FIRST SIX UNITS OF AMERICAN HEADWAY 4 AND ITS TEACHER'S EDITION.

Unit Sections	Modal Flow Principle		Contextualization Principle		Conceptualization Principle	
	No.	% of total	No.	% of total	No.	% of total
Grammar	1	16.6	6	100	3	50
Vocabulary & Pronunciation	1	16.6	5	83.3	4	66.6
Reading & Speaking	6	100	6	100	5	83.3
Listening & Speaking	5	83.3	6	100	4	66.6
Every day English	3	50	6	100	6	100
Writing	4	33.3	6	100	6	100

APPENDIX D. THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED IN THE FIRST EIGHT UNITS OF INTERCHANGE 3 AND ITS TEACHER'S EDITION.

Unit Sections	Modal Flow Principle		Contextualization Principle		Conceptualization Principle	
	No.	% of total	No.	% of total	No.	% of total
Snapshot	8	100	8	100	8	100
Conversation	8	100	8	100	8	100
Pronunciation	3	37.5	2	25	0	0
Grammar F.	15	93.7	16	100	7	43.7
Listening	7	53.8	13	100	2	15.3
Speaking	0	0	26	100	8	30.7
Writing	0	0	6	75	8	100
Word Power	2	25	4	50	6	75
Perspectives	5	62.5	8	100	3	37.5
Interch. Activity	0	0	8	100	4	50
Reading	8	100	8	100	4	50

Note: Grammar F. (Grammar Focus), Interch. Activity (Interchange Activity).

APPENDIX E. THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED IN THE FIRST FIVE UNITS OF SUMMIT 1 AND ITS TEACHER'S EDITION.

Unit Sections	Modal Flow Principle		Contextualization Principle		Conceptualization Principle	
	No.	% of total	No.	% of total	No.	% of total
Preview & Introduction	5	100	5	100	5	100
Conversation Lesson	5	100	5	100	5	100
Grammar Lesson	5	100	5	100	3	60
Reading Lesson	3	60	5	100	2	40
Listening Lesson	5	100	5	100	4	80
Writing	0	0	4	80	1	20

APPENDIX F. THE IDENTIFIED OCCURRENCES OF MODAL FLOW PRINCIPLE IN ENGLISH BOOK 1

Unit Sections	No. of Occurrence	Page No.
New Words	0	____
Reading	5	11, 24, 36, 46, 61
Speak Out	1	38
Write It Down	0	____
Lan. Functions	0	____
Pronunciation	0	____

APPENDIX G. THE IDENTIFIED OCCURRENCES OF MODAL FLOW PRINCIPLE IN ENGLISH BOOK 2

Unit Sections	No. of Occurrence	Page No.
New Words	0	____
Reading	4	4, 16, 32, 45
Speak Out	1	18
Write It Down	0	____
Lan. Functions	0	____
Pronunciation	0	____

APPENDIX H. THE IDENTIFIED OCCURRENCES OF MODAL FLOW PRINCIPLE IN AMERICAN HEADWAY 4

Unit Sections	No. of Occurrence	Page No.
Grammar	1	22
Vocabulary &Pronunciation	1	25
Reading & Speaking	6	6, 17, 26, 34, 44, 54
Listening & Speaking	5	10, 28, 33, 48, 53
Every day English	3	29, 39, 49
Writing	4	112, 115, 117, 118

APPENDIX I. THE IDENTIFIED OCCURRENCES OF MODAL FLOW PRINCIPLE IN INTERCHANGE 3

Unit Sections	No. of Occurrence	Page No.
Snapshot	8	2, 8, 16, 22, 32, 36, 44, 50
Conversation	8	2, 11, 16, 25, 33, 38, 47, 52
Pronunciation	3	12, 46, 51
Grammar F.	15	3, 6, 9, 11, 17, 23, 25, 31, 33, 37, 39, 45, 47, 51, 53
Listening	7	14, 18, 24, 34, 38, 43, 46
Speaking	0	____
Writing	0	____
Word Power	2	30, 54
Perspectives	5	5, 8, 22, 30, 44
Interch. Activity	0	____
Reading	8	7, 13, 21, 27, 35, 41, 49, 55

APPENDIX J. THE IDENTIFIED OCCURRENCES OF MODAL FLOW PRINCIPLE IN SUMMIT 1

Unit Sections	No. of Occurrence	Page No.
Preview & Introduction	5	2, 14 ,26 ,38 ,50
Conversation Lesson	5	6, 16 ,30 ,42 ,52
Grammar Lesson	5	4, 18, 28, 40, 54
Reading Lesson	3	8, 32, 58
Listening Lesson	5	10, 22, 32, 44, 56
Writing	0	____

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Mohammad Reza Talebinejad is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch. He is also an associate faculty member at Sheikhbahaee University, Iran.

Dr Talebinejad received his BA in English Language and Literature, University of Isfahan in 1975. He then got his MA in TEFL from the University of Texas at Austin, USA in 1977. For his doctoral degree, Dr Talebinejad was admitted to the University of Sheffield, UK, where he did his PhD in Applied Linguistics in 1994.

He has widely published in Iranian as well as International professional journals such as Metaphor and Symbol, English Teaching Forum, Language Testing, IJAl, Language and Translation, Journal of Social Sciences, The International Journal of Humanities, and other local and international journals. Dr Talebinejad has presented papers in International conferences such as AILA, 2000; Atiner, 2011; RAAM, 2002, 2001 in Paris and Tunis, EUROSLA, Switzerland, 2006; Multicultural Conference, 2007, China. In addition, Dr Talebinejad has authored/coauthored eight books in related fields and ESP.

Masoud Mahmoodzadeh was born in Mashhad, Iran, in 1985. He received his B.A. in English Language Translation from Imam Reza University, Mashhad, in 2008. He furthered his university studies on English education for an M.A. degree in TEFL and earned his M.A. degree from Sheikhbahaee University, Isfahan, Iran, in 2011.

He is currently an EFL teacher working in the English language centers in Mashhad. He has been teaching English to Iranian EFL learners in several language institutes since 2004. Also, he has one year of experience in teaching General English courses at Sheikhbahaee University. His main areas of interests include second language acquisition and curriculum planning/evaluation.

The Critical Period of L2 Acquisition Studies: Implications for Researchers in Chinese EFL Context

Wuhan Zhu
School of English, the University of Sheffield, UK
Email: zhuwuhan@sina.com

Abstract—This paper reviews the studies centring on the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), the major contributor to early L2 instruction in China. It firstly finds out that, in recent studies of CP in L2 acquisition settings (roughly after the year of 2000); a lot more variables besides the age factor have been integrated. The critical period studies in L2 settings has triggered diverse and even competing versions; while in Chinese EFL context, the critical period studies are still in its initial stage, i.e., concentrating on Ages of Onset (AOs) . The paper thus points out the implications of the CP studies in L2 settings for researches in Chinese EFL context.

Index Terms—CPH, L2 settings, Chinese EFL context

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of China' revolution and opening up to the world, English education has become extremely hot in China. As a result of China's entry into WTO, successful performance of Beijing 2008 Olympic Games and Shanghai 2010 World Exhibition, the number of people studying English, according a report from Beijing News report on 12 March, 2010, has surged to about 400,000,000. On the other hand, Chinese Ministry of Education issued a document as early as in 2001 to call for students staring English studies from the third grade in elementary schools in all cities and those villages which has the capability of teaching English. In some mega cities like Shanghai, the students were even required to study English from Grade one in primary school from the year of 2003. Until present, more and more children have begun to study English in kindergarten and even many kindergartens have turned into bilingual kindergartens. In addition, the market of early English language training has been greatly expanded.

Proponents of early English instruction in China are generally based on their belief "the younger=the better" in a critical period of L2 learning. The term critical period for language acquisition refers to "a period of time when learning a language is relatively easy and typically meets with a high degree of success. Once this period is over, at or before the onset of puberty, the average learner is less likely to achieve native-like ability in the target language" (Marinova-Todd et al., 2000, p.9). It is theoretically based on the Critical Period Hypothesis, which was in particular trigged by Lennerberg (1967) and was originally used to explain why children master the L1 within a remarkably short period of time and why adults can no longer learn a language as easily and as gracefully as children.

The fanaticism on early English instruction and learning from all levels in Chinese society seems to indicate that the CPH has been widely accepted in China. However, through the subsequent review in this paper, it finds out that scholars in Chinese academic world are sceptical to it because they have realized that the CPH, from the day when it came into being, has been full of dispute. Myriads of researches of it have been done in L2 settings and the results are diverse. Unfortunately, the studies of the CPH in Chinese EFL context are far from enough and are still in its initial stage. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a comprehensive review on the CPH studies in L2 settings, especially the CPH in recent period, to help gain a deeper insight and fully understand their implications on the studies in Chinese EFL context.

In realizing the aforementioned research aims, this paper at first discusses the original formulation of the CPH and then reviews the previous studies on CPH in second language settings. The review is divided into two periods: early studies before the year of 2000 and recent studies after the year of 2000. The justification of this division is that the main cause of the quarrel in early studies is from the partial standard of language, less concern with other variables, and from few perspectives and dimensions. These problems are solved by recent studies after the year of 2000. In addition, since mountains and mountains of researches have been done on the CPH studies, the new trend is more urgently to be reviewed for the new conditions of the CPH studies in China. The paper then reviews the studies of CPH in Chinese EFL context and points out the deficiencies. Based on the review, the implications from the studies of the CPH in L2 settings for the studies in Chinese EFL context are argued. At last of this paper, some conclusions are drawn.

II. FORMULATION OF CPH AND POSITIONS TAKEN BY SOME EARLY RESEARCHERS OUTSIDE CHINA

This chapter first explores the originality of the theory of CPH and its link to second language acquisition and then

categorizes the two opposing positions held by some early studies. Here 'early' means years before 2000. At last, it assesses the two positions and reveals the problems which call for being further studied.

A.   Original Formulation of the CPH and Its Link to SLA

The CPH was well known for L1 acquisition originally, but it has aroused considerable interest on its effects on second language acquisition (SLA). Researchers in SLA field seem to have more interest in whether the CPH can be applied into SLA studies.

The CPH was first proposed by Montreal neurologist Wilder Penfield and co-author Lamar Roberts in a 1959 paper *Speech and Brain Mechanisms*, and was popularised by Eric Lenneberg in 1967 with *Biological Foundations of Language*. Lenneberg proposed brain lateralisation at puberty as the mechanism that closes down the brain's ability to acquire language. He claimed that:

automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear [after puberty], and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort. Foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty. However, a person can learn to communicate at the age of forty. This does not trouble our basic hypothesis [. . .].(Lenneberg, 1967, p.176)

Based on the above quotations, research in SLA field was centred around age restrictions on the possibility of reaching native-like levels in an L2. According to Long (1990) and Birdsong (1999), research questions in SLA study are mainly categorized into the following three issues:

(1)Whether young language-learners are 'better' at learning a second language;

(2) Whether late learners can achieve native-like L2 proficiency; and

(3) Whether the turning-point age is around puberty.

According to these three issues, researchers put that the CPH is able to applied into the L2 acquisition field study on the condition that one of the following three conditions are met:

(1) Young language learners are better at learning a second language than adults.

(2) Learners who begin their L2 learning before critical period (CP) can achieve native-like L2 proficiency while adults cannot.

(3) There is a discontinuity of L2 learning for the learners who begin learning after CP.

B.   Diverse Positions of the Early Researches: Focusing on the Three Issues

Following the three issues, a large number of studies were conducted. Some famous studies, especially from the 1970s to the year of 2000, are categorized in Table 1. These studies fall into two opposite positions: supporting the CPH or challenging it.

TABLE1.
TWO POSITIONS OF SOME EARLY STUDIES ON THE CPH

Challenges of the CPH	Support for the CPH
Asher, et al., 1969; Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994, 1999; Birdsong, 1992, 1999; Bongaerts, 1999; Coppieters, 1987; Fathman, 1975; Flege, 1995, 1999;Hoefnagel-Hoёhle & Snow, 1977; Moyer, 1999; Olson & Samuels, 1973	Cochrane, 1980; Cummins, 1981; Hyltenstam, 1992; Johnson & Newport, 1989; McLaughlin , 1977;Oyama, 1976, 1978;Patkowski, 1980; Scovel, 1988; Walburg et al., 1978;Yamada, et., al. 1980

It seems not possible to specify all the studies one by one. Therefore, only some of these are chosen to represent how the studies were deployed to challenge or support the three points.

1. Positions on whether younger equals better. Several studies challenged the position that younger equals better. These studies compared younger and older learners in terms of their achievement in second language acquisition. The methodologies used in these studies included a range of designs from experimental studies with very brief acquisition periods (a few minutes to a number of weeks or months) (e.g. Olson & Samuels, 1973; Snow & Hoefnagel-Hoehle, 1977) to naturalistic studies with acquisition periods of up to one year, as in the case of Snow & Hoefnagel-Hoehle (1978). These have identified adults' advantage over children (Johnson & Newport, 1989, etc.). As a result, the general younger= better hypothesis of the CPH was seen as falsified.

After reviewing the literature, Krashen et al. (1979) and Long (1990) point out that this category of studies actually had very little to do with the CPH, because in reality they only investigated that older learners acquired certain aspects of their second language at a higher rate than the younger ones. They did not investigate the learners' eventual outcome. Furthermore, the lasting time of the subjects' residence and learning a foreign language was really too short. Therefore, they concluded the above studies did not pose any threat to the CPH.

2. Positions on whether there exist native-like late learners. Some other studies challenging the CPH point out that there exist adults who achieve a native –like second language proficiency or native –like second language competence in grammaticality judgement, a question formation, pronunciation and other tasks (see review in Birdsong 1999). These studies identified learners with ages of onset (hereafter AOs) after puberty who eventually perform in the range of native speakers. Here are some examples. Birdsong (1992) discovered that 15 of his 20 late foreign language learners of French (L1 English) performed within the range of native speakers on a difficult grammaticality judgement task. In a similar manner, Bongaerts (1999) and his colleagues found out that some highly proficient Dutch foreign language

learners of English and French with post-puberty AOs had native-like pronunciation. Further, White and Genesee (1996) adopted a strict screening procedure among a group of 99 advanced second language learners of English (L1 French) and identified 45 of the learners as near-native and the remaining 44 as nonnative. Both groups were then assessed with two measures, a grammaticality judgement test and a question formation test. Both tests investigated the accessibility to the Universal Grammar features of Subjacency and the Empty Category Principle. In connection with the grammaticality judgement test, reaction times were also measured. The results showed significant differences between the non-natives and a native control group, but no significant differences between the near natives and the native group, not even in reaction time.

However, as for the claim that there exist some native-like late learners, Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (1992) reveal one weakness that may make the above studies a less serious threat to the CPH. That is, all of these studies compared advanced learners with native controls only in one or more single dimensions of the learners' L2. Furthermore, all of the authors referred to above noted themselves that even when subjects perform within the range of native speakers in the dimensions investigated, they may differ from native speakers in other respects (Birdsong, 1999).

3. Positions on whether the turning-point age is around puberty. Some other researches also challenged the CPH because they argue that an age effect on ultimate attainment is not obviously linked to any specific age span, such as before or after puberty, but has been demonstrated to be successive over the entire life-span. Bialystok and Hakuta (1994) and Flege (1999) have found a linear decline in eventual outcome with increasing AOs. Flege (1995) investigated 240 learners of English (L1 Italian) with AO 2-23, along with a group of native controls, who were rated for accent by native speakers of English. No discontinuity was found around puberty or any other age. Another example is Bialystok and Hakuta (1999) who analysed data from the 1990 U.S. population census. As many as approximately 25,000 L1 speakers of Chinese and 39,000 L1 speakers of Spanish were included in the study, all of whom had a length of residence (LOR) in the USA of more than 10 years. The subjects had self-rated their proficiency level in English on a five grade scale, and this rating was correlated with their calculated age of arrival. The results showed the expected pattern: the higher the age of arrival the lower the level of eventual proficiency. Bialystok and Hakuta conclude that the decline in proficiency remains constant across the ages and is similar for both Spanish and Chinese.

However, other researches support there exist a turning point in the process of L2 acquisition. Two different offset ages have been identified in different studies, one around puberty, which is then in accordance with Lennerberg's early hypothesis (Oyama, 1976; Patowski, 1980; Scovel, 1988) and one around 6-7 years of age, thus similar to Lennerberg's (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Hyltenstam, 1992).

Oyama analysed the accent and listening comprehension of 60 second language speakers of English (L1 Italian) with AO 6-20 and their length of their residence (LOR) is from 5 to 18 years. In another study of this type, Patkowski studied the free oral production of 67 immigrants to the United States. Half of the subjects had started to acquire English before the age of 15, while the other half began acquisition after that age. The results of these two studies showed a strong effect for AO but not for LOR. Thus they support that the offset age is around puberty.

In the other study, Johnson & Newport investigated the performance of 46 adult Chinese and Korean learners of English in the USA on measures of grammatical intuition. They found that learners who had arrived at ages 3-7 performed within the range of native controls. For learners who had arrived at ages between 7 through puberty, there was a linear decline in performance, while for those who had AOs above 17 the performance was not predictable from their AO. The authors concluded that the age effect is present during a time of ongoing biological and cognitive maturation and absent after maturation is complete (i.e. after puberty). Similar findings were also made in the study of Hyltenstam (1992). These studies show that native-like performance seems possible if learning starts before the age of 7. On the other hand, an AO after 7 does not seem to guarantee a native-like ultimate attainment. This means that the level of ultimate attainment is predictable for AOs up to a certain early age after which the correlation between AOs and ultimate attainment becomes random. So these studies are in principle in congruent with a CPH, although they have put the offset at the lower age level which derivate from Lenneberg's original formulation of the CPH with regarding to the end point of the critical period.

4. Summary assessment of the early studies of CPH and problems to be further solved

a. Three problems in the early studies of CPH. Based on the previous review, it is concluded that the debate on the CPH in SLA studies is fierce. There exist three problems to be solved.

(1) The studies which investigate the learners' eventual attainment of L2 learners, especially of adult learners whose AOs are after CP, are not enough. Meanwhile, they do not make a suitable interpretation to why older learners acquire certain aspects of their second language in higher rate than younger ones.

(2) The standard of 'nativeness' was not clear in these studies. There is no all-acknowledged parameter to test the language proficiency of learners. The parameters of competence or performance employed in the above studies are partial, not comprehensive.

(3) These studies have not achieved a consensus on whether there is a cut-off age point or a continuous decline, while this point is crucial to the CPH in SLA studies.

b. The most crucial problem of the early researches: partial methodology. Of the three problems illustrated above, the second problem needs to be highlighted here because it is very difficult for learners to have an all-acknowledged parameter to test the language proficiency of learners. This problem is actually attributed to the diverse theoretical

linguistics on the definition of language. To make readers understand this kind of situation deeply, it is necessary to discuss the definition of language.

Chomsky (1957), leader of formalist linguistics, defines that language is united with competence and performance. In Chomsky's view, linguistic theory is not immediately concerned with describing the actual language use in a language community. Although it is assumed that there is a relation between the language users' grammaticality intuitions and their actual language behaviour, there is a sharp distinction between these. On the one hand, the language system may offer possibilities which are rarely or never used; on the other hand, the actual language use involves mistakes which a linguistic theory should not necessarily account for. In Chomsky's terminology: linguistics is concerned with the linguistic competence rather than the actual performance of the language user. However, functional linguists, represented by Halliday, are more concerned with performance. Halliday (1978) sees linguistic universals as a manifestation of the types of use to which we put a language, while language development is the product of learning how to communicate in face-to face interaction. In his view of linguistic universal, there is no need to treat it as innate.

The diverse definitions held by formalist and functionalist may naturally lead to a confusion of the eventual attainment of L2 learners. Moreover, it may cause an unclear parameter of native or near- native language for linguists have not common parameter, competence or performance, to be employed to measure the eventual attainment of L2 learners. Some researchers before the year of 2000 rely on a grammatical judgement to measure the competence of L2 learner, while other researchers rely on other measures categorized into performance. Table 2 demonstrates some of these studies before the year of 2000.

TABLE2.
METHODOLOGIES OF SOME STUDIES

Researches	Heavily rely on competence test	Heavily rely on performance Test
Bialystok & Hakuta (1999)		Pronunciation
Birdsong (1992)	grammaticality judgement	
Bongaerts (19990		read-aloud task
Flege (1995)	grammatical intuition	
Johnson & Newport (1989)		five grade scale
Oyama (1978)		accent and listening comprehension
Patkowski (1980)		free oral production
White & Genesee (1996)	a grammaticality judgement test, and a question formation test	

These studies are manifestations of the diversion between formalist and functionalist. The methodologies are partial and thus inevitably lead to the quarrel on the eventual attainment of L2 learners. Luckily in the subsequent review, it is easily seen that recent researches (mainly after the year of 2000) have drawn lessons from the early researches and further studied the CPH from various linguistic aspects and dimensions. These recent studies have pushed a development of the CPH in SLA studies.

III. FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF THE CPH IN SLA STUDIES

According to the problems calling for further studies, this part reviews recent studies and highlights the development compared with the early studies.

A. Developmental Studies on Eventual Attainment of L2 Learners: Focus on Variability and More Aspects of Language

According to the above review on the early studies which probe the eventual attainment of L2 learners and whether there are native-like learners, the results are in dispute. This is because researchers employed different standard to measure the learners' attainment, i.e., they partially relied on some parameters of competence or performance, and thus leading to diverse results.

Many new studies go beyond the scope of traditional inquiries as they apply mixed research methodology. Although these studies still use grammaticality judgment tests following Johnson and Newport's (1989) seminal study, they combine formal tests of competence with measures of performance and focus on wider variables (Bongerts et al., 1995, 1997; Marinova-Todd, 2003; Moyer, 2004; Nikolov, 2000; Urponen, 2004, etc.).

Three researches are specified here. In the study of Marinova-Todd (2003), it examined the profiles of 30 post-puberty learners of English from 25 countries and speaking 18 languages. The results were matched with a control group of 30 native speakers with academic backgrounds. Data were collected with the help of a number of formal tests and a narrative task. Formal tasks included a previously validated grammaticality judgment test, sentence comprehension tests, a standardized vocabulary test, a discourse completion test, reading out a paragraph, and spontaneous speech (Frog story with visual prompts) to evaluate pronunciation and fluency. According to the methodology of this research, it can be easily seen the greater progress has been achieved in contrast to the previous studies, which integrated grammatical judgement tests with various measures of performance.

The other study which needs to be highlighted here is by Moyer (2004), which studied not only the language proficiency of 25 successful well-educated immigrants to Germany from Britain, France, Poland, Russia, Slovakia,

Turkey, and the U.S., but also explored how their ultimate attainment was influenced by their opportunities and intentions, thus integrating quantitative and qualitative data. Three sets of instruments were used for data collection: (1) a questionnaire surveying biological-experiential, social-psychological, instructional cognitive, and experiential-social experiences; (2) controlled and semi-controlled production tasks (reading out words, a paragraph, spontaneous speech on an important or embarrassing situation, recital of short sayings or proverbs); and (3)semi-structured interviews.

Nikolov (2000) conducted two parallel studies involving late starters of L2 English and Hungarian. Participants in the first study were 20 adults learning Hungarian, all of whom started learning the target language as young adults in Hungary. The second study involved 13 Hungarians. All of them started English at the age of 15 in secondary school and some of them studied one or two semesters abroad as young adults. Both studies involved control groups of native speakers. Data were collected using three instruments: (1) participants' background was explored with the help of structured interviews; (2) a narrative task in which they were asked to describe an embarrassing moment in their life or a happy moment they remembered with pleasure; (3) they read out an authentic passage in the target language.

To sum up, three more implications will be drawn from the above studies:

(1) An important development in these studies relates to the variety of first and target languages: Successful post-puberty learners of L2 English, German, and Hungarian were involved speaking over 30 languages as L1, for example, Bulgarian, English, Farsi, Finnish, French, Hungarian, Russian, Slovak, and Ukrainian, among others.

(2) These recent studies tap into a number of variables especially on the learner variables such as "opportunities afforded to individual learners" (Moyer, 2004,) and the extent to which they wish to be taken for native speakers. An important finding relates to the status and perception of languages, because learners 'first language and culture and the L2 and culture also exert an influence on ultimate attainment: in Moyer's (2004) study an American participant learning German, and in Nikolov's (2000) research three Russian wives and a British woman learning Hungarian did not want to pass for L2 native speakers, for they considered their accent to be an integral part of their identities and their culture of higher prestige. These findings are in line with what Moyer (1999) found in her previous study in which few successful advanced learners of German wanted to be sound native or even to improve their phonology. However, a Ukrainian speaker of German (Moyer, 2004), and a young Russian entrepreneur and a Bulgarian actress speaking Hungarian (Nikolov, 2000) did not wish to be identified by their accent and worked on their language development consciously.

(3) A similar result has got in the recent studies that later learners could achieve native-like foreign language proficiency. For example, in the study by Marinova-Todd (2003), three main profiles emerged for highly proficient late learners: (1) Three women, married to native speakers of English, attained native level across all domains. (2) Two participants (also married to native speakers of English) were within native range on all measures, but in receptive vocabulary. (3) Three other women, none of whom lived with native speakers of L2, achieved similarly high scores on all tests, but they failed on both measures of pronunciation. So these studies clearly demonstrate that native ultimate attainment is available to a number of adults who started learning the target language after puberty, therefore, the strong version of the CPH cannot be maintained any longer.

B.   Recent Studies on Discontinuity

The question whether a cut-off point or a continuous decline characterizes learners in second language contexts is pivotal to the CPH debate. A critical period for language learning is often defined as a sharp decline in learning outcomes with age. Hakuta, Bialystok and Wiley (2003) tested the CPH on data from the 1990 U.S. Census using self-assessments on age on arrival, length of exposure, and language development from 2.3 million immigrants with Chinese and Spanish L1. Instead of finding a markedly different line regressing on either side of the CP, their results showed large linear effects for level of education and for age on arrival. This lack of discontinuity indicates "that the degree of success in SLA steadily declines throughout the life span".

Chiswick, Lee and Miller (2004) analyzed a huge dataset in a longitudinal survey of immigrants to Australia. These studies failed to find a pattern of discontinuous decline indicating a hallmark of a critical period. MacWhinney(2005) explains the absence of a sharp decline and age-related effects within his Unified Competition Model: older learners become increasingly reliant on connections between sound and orthography and they vary in the constructions they can control or that are missing or incorrectly transferred. They are also affected by restricted social contacts and declining cognitive abilities. In his view, none of these factors predict a sharp drop at a certain age in L2 learning abilities, but a gradual decline across the life span. An in-depth analysis of maturational constraints is put forth by Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003) arguing that a "consensus model" can integrate the accumulated evidence on empirical facts and the relationships among them. In their view, maturation can account for the general linear decline in learning potentials with increasing age on arrival for learners in general, "whereas the variability between exceptionally successful and non exceptional L2 learners of the same starting age is accounted for best by non maturational factors".

Barry and Paul (2008) also examine the relevance of the critical period for English-speaking proficiency among immigrants in the USA. It uses micro-data from the 2000 US Census, a model of language acquisition and a flexible specification of an estimating equation based on 64 age-at-migration dichotomous variables. Self-reported English-speaking proficiency among immigrants declines more or less monotonically with age at migration, and this relationship is not characterised by any sharp decline or discontinuity that might be considered consistent with a 'critical' period.

C.   Summary

After reviewing the recent studies, it is clearly to be found that these new studies go beyond the scope of traditional inquiries and combine formal tests of competence with measures of performance. They seek to investigate more and more variables concerned with CPH, especially on learners' factors such as first languages and their cultures, learner' level of education and the age of arrival at a foreign culture, different target language, etc.

IV.   CPH STUDIES IN CHINA

The Critical Period Hypothesis seems to have been widely acknowledged by educational policy makers of Chinese government and people from different level of societies. However, in contrast to the fanaticism from these people, the academic world has been prudent and even sceptical to the critical period of L2 acquisition. Several empirical studies have been done to test the hypothesis and the results are diverse.

Compared with myriads of empirical studies of the CP outside China, the CP studies in China are still staying in their initial stage. Specifically, much more speculative analysis and reviews of the CPH (Dai, 1994; Wang, 2001; Hu, 2002; Zhao, 2002; Liu, 2003; Ding, 2004; Yang, 2004; to name but just a few) were done than empirical studies in China. Nearly all the scholars have shown their cautious attitude to the CPH. This is because they realized that the research on the CPH has primarily concentrated on learners in L2 setting, in which learners get access to L2 outside the classroom and are immersed in the context where the L2 is used as a main communicational tool. In China, learners have very limited access to English outside classrooms. So it is too rash to use the CPH to serve in Chinese EFL context. Ding (2004) was sceptical to the CPH from cultural perspective. He thinks that the CPH hypothesis was first put forth in developed western countries and studied under the environment of western culture. The educational practice influenced by this culture tends to emphasize the importance of letting individual learners work at their own pace, without pressure from outside. Under this culture, people believe that L2 development will take place naturally by itself even without much effort as long as learners are exposed to L2 data frequently.

The Chinese culture, in contrast, lays emphasis on social organization and on the need of individuals to cohere and contribute to the organization. Learners under the Chinese educational system, in other words, are not to become 'what they might be', but what they needed to be. This tradition justifies, in Chinese educational practice, the pressure on learners and the importance attached to their hard, conscious effort. Therefore, Chinese educators look at the existence of CPH with deep suspicion when they teach pupils 'no pains, no gains.'

In comparison with the number of speculative analysis of the critical period of L2 acquisition, few empirical studies (Dong, 2003; Wang, 2003; Shu, 2003; Lu, 2004; Liu, 2005; Xin & Zhou 2006; Zhao &Zou, 2008) have been found in Chinese EFL context.

The results of these empirical studies are diverse; however, more studies support that no critical period determines success in learning English in Chinese EFL context. For example, Zhao and Zou (2008) conducted a qualitative analysis of 42 autobiographies of contemporary renowned foreign language experts in China to examine the age related factors that may have led to success in foreign language learning. The study demonstrates a moderate correlation between AO and self-assessed achievements in the whole database of early-starters and late-starters and a weak correlation found in the early-starters. This finding does not support the CPH and argues that the other important factors such as motivation, teachers and language aptitude may decide L2 success for the learners. Wang (2003) performed a similar survey of the language learning experiences of some 30-well known scholars in the field of EFL, 11 successful English learners and a number of students learning German on an intensive training course at a Chinese famous university. The result shows that there does not really exist a so-called optimum age for Chinese learners. The author thus proposes that a strong motivation, proper learning strategies and intense efforts are decisive factors in successfully learning a foreign language.

Among the empirical studies which resulting in opposing the CPH, Liu (2005) set a good example for Chinese researchers. He investigates the effects of early English learning in China, a language learning context often marked by a lack of sufficient input in English. About 800 participants were studied. This suggests that differences in teaching quality, and overall English environment, as well as possible the English exposure outside urban and rural schools play a more significant role in learner success. It suggests that the external conditions (e.g., class size, class time, facilities, and quality teaching) directly affect and shape our students' internal conditions (e.g., motivation, attitudes, anxiety, and inhibition) at the early stage of their English learning.

There are two similar empirical studies whose findings support the CPH in Chinese EFL context. Lu (2004) and Xin and Zhou(2006) analyzed the influence of SLA beginning age on the postgraduates'English level and found a positive correlation between early starting age and these postgraduates' English proficiency. Thus they suggest that, the initial English program should be begun in elementary school rather than in junior high. In addition, the optimal timing for the program is not as early as possible. Grade 3 is a possible starting point, but Grade 4 or 5 may be more preferable. However, from our view point, these two empirical studies are hard to prove the existence of the CPH in Chinese EFL context. We may also judge that the external factors, such as the long exposure of English, the better teaching conditions for those graduates who start learning English in early age may lead to their higher proficiency than the other graduates.

V.   IMPLICATIONS OF THE CPH STUDIES FOR THE FUTURE STUDY IN CHINESE EFL CONTEXT

In Compared with the huge amount of research of the CPH in language setting, there is still little research, especially empirical research in China. A lot more research is urgently called for in Chinese EFL context. On the other hand, the critical review of the studies of the CPH in L2 settings has offered much implication for future study in China. Three crucial implications are highlighted here.

A.   Testing the Language Proficiency of Chinese EFL Learners from Comprehensive Dimensions

According to our review above, it cannot be denied that there is still no consensus on whether second language learners can achieve native language proficiency. However, the recent researches have gained much progress in measuring the L2 learners' language proficiency because they combine formal tests of competence with measures of performance and focus on wider variables.

An all-acknowledged parameter to test the language proficiency of learners seems to be difficult to be made. Therefore, a comprehensive parameter of competence and performance to test L2 learner' language performance is necessary. However, the empirical studies in Chinese EFL context have employed a very partial parameter. In Wang (2003) and Zhao and Zou's (2008) studies, the definition of successful learners are very fuzzy. Do the successful learners or scholars mean they are native-like English speakers? Do they exhibit a native-like English proficiency in all aspects of language? These problems which may shake the foundation of these two researches exist in the other studies. For example, in Lu (2004) and Xin and Zhou's (2006) studies, it is too hasty that they draw a conclusion that there is a critical period of L2 acquisition just according to the good performance of an oral test and a written test from the postgraduates.

In conclusion, it is worth emphasizing here that a comprehensive parameter to test the learners' English proficiency is urgently called for in China. Marinova-Todd (2003) set a good example (cf. the previous chapter for a detail). More studies on the features' of learner language are needed in China.

B.   Calling for More Empirical Studies on CPH from Different Factors

Various factors of learning English, not limited in age factor, should be taken into consideration in China. Many Chinese scholars have paid attention to this. For example, Liu (2003) puts that the impact of other factors related on language acquisition need to be considered, instead of the age factor alone. However, empirical studies in Chinese EFL context have seldom taken these factors into consideration.

Although it has been extensively studied for several decades, CPH remains as controversial today as ever before. Although the standard of native-like language proficiency is fuzzy, some researchers claim that they could find cases that native-like competence is attainable after the critical period. Thus, individual differences are a powerful weapon used to compensate the shortcomings of CPH. Marinova-Todd et al. (2001) suggest that some factors other than age might be more crucial in successful L2 acquisition. Although older learners are indeed less likely than young children to master an L2, a close examination of studies relating age to language acquisition reveals that age differences in fact reflect differences in the context of learning (e.g., gettingL2 authentic input or language exposure) rather than in neurobiological abilities to learn.

In a word, the study of language is quite sophisticated, we need put more studies on individual differences on exploring how aptitude, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, and other factors contribute to outcomes over time. It would be useful to examine how young learners' cognitive abilities develop, how their L2 learning contributes to being open and friendly toward other cultures, and studying further languages. The role of the L1 has been neglected; therefore further research in Chinese EFL context is needed into how two or more languages interact with one another, and how children show developmental sequences typical of Chinese and the target language in different skills.

For pedagogical applications in Chinese EFL context, longitudinal studies are needed with a focus on the quality of the learning experience over time. It may integrate linguistic, cognitive, and affective factors contributing to young learners' development. It would be necessary to research case studies of both good and bad classroom practice: what children and teachers do in which language, how they interact with one another, how teachers scaffold children's development and what materials they apply and how peers contribute to classroom processes. In other words, it would be necessary to explore classroom practice over time and triangulate data collected from learners, teachers, and observers.

C.   Conducting the CPH Studies in Chinese EFL Context with Its Competing Version –-from Socio-Cognitive Perspective

CPH has become a coat of many colours (Singelton, 2005) that brings a large number of research areas of SLA together and does much deepen our understanding of the L2 learning process. It has become a medium through which different theories, even competing versions can be communicated. In the competing versions of the linguistics theories, the socio-cognitive linguistic theory is highlighted here because it is easily found from our review that the socio-cognitive factors of learners have actually been attached importance to in the previous researches in L2 settings.

Over the decades, critics on the CPH have never been silent. The sharpest one of them was from Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1955). According to Piaget and his associates, language acquisition takes place in the context of a child's intellectual development rather than as a separate growing progress. To Piaget, 'conceptualization precedes verbalization.' The ability to represent objects and events is prerequisite to the acquisition of language. The possibility

of humans acquiring language turns into reality only when they need to communicate something. Many properties of language, in fact, are based on human experience in the word and therefore must be acquired as the child grows. From this point, the existence of the CPH is doubtful.

Piaget's theory was originally formulated and adopted in the first language acquisition studies. But it can be also used in the second language studies. As to the rate of second language acquisition, adults acquire primary levels of grammar more rapidly than young children because of their great cognitive abilities, with the exception of pronunciation. As for final attainment, however, children will prove much more successful. According to Piaget's theory, language learning can be seen as constant movement between the processes of hypothesis application and hypothesis reformulation, moving from knowledge to practice and back to knowledge again. In both processes, children are superior to their adult counterparts. First, children are not afraid of making mistakes and are more willing to take risks. Therefore, they are more ready than adult learners to put their hypothetical knowledge to the test of language practice. Second, they are more attentive to form, to how language, including minute features of language, is used in context. Since they make greater efforts to observe language use, they are more ready than adult learners to reformulate their L2 knowledge. And as the theory of identity (Burns, 1977) holds, children are strongly motivated to become part of the target language community, and it requires a native-like accent and a native-like competence to achieve this. In contrast, adults tend to be satisfied with a level of acceptable, functional L2 competence and tend to see no need for full linguistic integration.

Therefore, studies on the existence of the CPH in second language acquisition may possibly be conducted from cognitive perspective. The age difference can be explained from social-cognitive perspectives. This may answer the question why there exist so many different results to CPH researches. It may also explain why adults acquire certain aspects of second language at a higher rate than children in a short period after they begin to study a second language, due to the maturation of adult's cognition. In China, many scholars (e.g. Weng, 2008; Liu, 2010) speculate that socio-cognitive oriented L2 theories have laid a theoretical foundation for research of foreign language learning process, learning motivations, learning strategies and socio-cultural factors in Chinese EFL context. Therefore, more empirical studies of the CPH in Chinese EFL context are expected to be conducted with the integration of socio-cognitive perspective in the future.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This paper discusses researches of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) studies in L2 settings and Chinese EFL context. After surveying the early studies, it points out that the quarrel in the early studies was in fact due to the hot-disputed topic of the definition of language and studying from few perspectives. Thus, recent studies are more on different variables and combine competence and performance as the parameter. The paper further points out that the dispute on CPH in L2 studies will not be stopped and it needs to be further studied from multi-perspectives, especially from the social-congitive one. It thus will also lead SLA researchers to attend more studies to learner language. (eg. Hakuta et al., 2003; Hasselgreen, 2005; etc.) The CPH studies have brought much implication to the studies, especially empirical studies in Chinese EFL context.

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Wuhan Zhu is currently a Doctoral Candidate in the School of English Literature, Language and Linguistics at the University of Sheffield in the UK. He received MA degree in English linguistics and a BA degree in English Education from Nanjing Normal University, China. He was a teacher of English and English linguistics in China and has published 7 papers in Chinese and international academic journals. His current interests include applied linguistics, pragmatics and cross cultural communication.

The Relationship between Lexical Inferencing Strategies and L2 Proficiency of Iranian EFL Learners

Mansoor Tavakoli
Department of English, University of Isfahan, Iran
Email: mr.tavakoli14@gmail.com

Samira Hayati
Department of English, University of Isfahan, Iran
Email: Sr.hayati.2006@gmail.com

Abstract—This paper tries to find out what knowledge sources Iranian EFL learners used while trying to infer the meaning of unknown words in the context. It is also intended to find out whether the students' level of L2 proficiency would affect the pattern of their use of the knowledge sources, and if there is a relationship between students' lexical inferencing strategy and their sex. To conduct the study, forty Iranian EFL learners, studying English at the private language institute, were selected to participate in the experiment, and then, they were divided into low and high intermediate levels based on their scores on FCE test. Four short stories were given to them, each story in one class session. The participants were asked to read the story, underline the unknown words, guess the meaning of those unknown words, and then specify the knowledge sources that they used to guess the meaning of the unknown words. The results showed that there were some differences among the students at these two levels regarding the type of knowledge sources used and success in lexical inferencing.

Index Terms—EFL learners, gender, L2 proficiency, lexical inferencing strategies, reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning vocabulary in a second language is an important and complex task. Many scholars believe that learning a second language (L2) involves the learning of large numbers of words (Avila & Sadoski, 1996; Laufer& Hulstijn, 2001). In fact, it is believed that vocabulary learning is one of the most integral and fundamental areas of language acquisition, whether dealing with L1 or L2. Effective second language vocabulary acquisition is particularly important for English as foreign language (EFL) learners who frequently acquire impoverished lexicons despite years of formal study (Hunt & Beglar, 2005).

Vocabulary is important since it is the words which carry the content of what we want to express. But how do the learners acquire vocabulary is of utmost importance in language learning. It is said that reading is probably one of the best ways to acquire new vocabularies. However, L2 vocabulary development through reading is complex. One of the most difficulties learners have in reading is about vocabulary. When reading different passages in a foreign language, the learners come across unfamiliar words which inhibit their understanding of them. There are a number of ways to find out the meaning of unfamiliar words such as consulting a dictionary, asking someone and inferring the meaning from the context. In language learning, inferring word meanings while reading is a process of vocabulary acquisition which has an important influence on comprehension either in first or second language. Inferencing has been defined as the connections that people establish when they try to interpret texts (Brown & Yule, 1983).

To further shed light on this issue, the present study tries to investigate the relationship between types of knowledge sources and lexical inferencing of Iranian EFL learners across different levels of proficiency.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A widely held view in the current literature on second and/or foreign language acquisition is that one major way in which learners acquire different kinds of language knowledge, such as syntactic knowledge, semantic knowledge, is through exposure to and comprehension of oral and written input in L2. Nowadays, much attention has been paid to reading by teachers and researchers either in a second or foreign language learning contexts. Also, for many students, reading is the most important of the four language skills. This point becomes more important especially in EFL learning situations since reading turns into one of the main sources of input by which learners learn the new language. Extensive

reading gives learners rich background knowledge, vocabulary recognition, familiarity with the structure and rhetorical conventions of different texts and high motivation for reading more.

Skills in reading fall generally into four categories: mechanics, syntax, vocabulary, and comprehension. To comprehend a text is the main purpose of reading. Reading comprehension is a complex skill which involves combining all of the reading subskills to get the message of the text. During EFL reading process, many a factor influences a reader's comprehension of the text. Among them, lexical problems have been considered as the most serious (Chern and Chi, 1988; Grabe, 1991; Levine and Reves, 1990; Walker, 1981; Yorio, 1971). Since vocabulary is a sizable component in the learning process, learners across proficiency levels will encounter situations where they can understand only part of the text due to the fact that they do not know the meaning of all the words in the text. Most research in vocabulary learning indicates that learners can derive the meaning of unknown words while reading by using the context in which they appear (Chern, 1993; Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Seibert, 1945; Stein, 1993). Second language (L2) vocabulary development through reading involves associating new forms with their meanings and referents using syntactic, semantic and pragmatic knowledge.

Guessing intelligently in reading, sometimes called "inferencing", involves using a variety of linguistic and nonlinguistic clues to guess the meaning when the learner does not know all the words (Oxford, 1990). But there seems to be a number of factors which can affect success in inferencing the meaning of unknown words from the context. Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) concluded:

Lexical guessing is a very difficult task either because of the complexity of the text or because of the limitations of the reader, or both. Some words do not have clues in the text in which they appear; when there are clues for such words foreign language learners will not necessarily look for them; and when readers do look for these clues very often they cannot locate or understand them. (p. 27)

Since adequate cues in the context can help learners to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words, it might follow that reasonably sufficient contextual cues should be provided in texts for foreign language learners, so that enough information can be created for them to play the "psycholinguistic guessing game" which requires " skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are the first time" (Goodman, 1967, p.128).

Robinson and Good (1987) classified seven types of cotextual clues used by EFL readers to solve word problems in reading comprehension. The seven types are definition, experience, comparison or contrast, synonym, familiar expression or language experience, summary, and mood or situation. Sentence connectives were added by Kruse (1979), appositives by Durkin (1989), and hyponyms by Mikulecky (1990).

Haastrup's (1990) study of Danish-speaking EFL readers demonstrated that EFL readers utilize a wide range of lexical inferencing procedures, but most of them are used ineffectively. For instance, some readers adopt pure bottom-level processing and work exclusively at the morphological identification, and some readers rely on pure top-level contextual clues only and disregard the possible semantic or lexical sources. Haastrup (1990) states that EFL readers' knowledge of how to comprehend new words is basically established on readers' linguistic and conceptual knowledge. Her analysis of the differences between high-proficiency and low- proficiency readers further proved that reader's L2 proficiency is a "decisive factor in lexical inferencing procedure." What Haastrup informed us is that successful lexical inferencing depends on all available contextual clues, readers' L2 proficiency, readers' general knowledge of the world, and the parallel processing of word meaning, i.e., the interactive model of bottom-level and top-level.

To explore how EFL learners cope with unknown words, Nation (1990) indicated that word guessing form the context is undoubtedly the most significant vocabulary learning strategy. Lexical inferencing from contextual clues, as Nation proposed, enables learners to make a well-formed guess at the meaning of an unfamiliar word in context without interrupting their own train of thought too much.

About factors involved in lexical inferencing, Nagy (1997) considers the role of learners' pre-existing knowledge bases and how these knowledge bases influence learners' strategy use and success. Nagy groups learners' knowledge bases into three main categories: linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and strategic knowledge. The linguistic knowledge category covers all knowledge that learners possess about the linguistic context in which the word has occurred, including their syntactic knowledge, lexical knowledge, and knowledge of word schema (i.e., knowledge of possible meanings of the word). Nassaji (2004) concluded that there is a significant link between depth of vocabulary knowledge and the type and degree of lexical inferencing strategy use.

Riazi and Babaei (2008) conducted a study to reveal Iranian EFL female students' lexical inferencing and its relationship to their L2 proficiency and reading skill. The results of their study showed that elementary students resorted to all clues including contextual, intralingual and interlingual to guess the meaning of unknown words, while intermediate students relied on contextual clues only and advanced learners made use of contextual and intralingual (just in one case) sources and also advanced students were more successful in making correct lexical inferences. They further concluded that lexical inferencing ability did not show any significant relationship with students' reading comprehension performance.

İstifçi (2009) examined lexical inferencing of Turkish EFL learners. He wanted to show what inferencing strategies the learners at intermediate and low- intermediate levels use when they attempt to guess the meaning of unknown words and the similarities and differences between these two levels. It was seen that students at the two levels tried to use

different types of inferencing strategies. However, the percentage of correct inferences was higher at intermediate level than low- intermediate level.

This can be due to the students' level and the degree of risk-taking. Also, it was shown that the students at intermediate level were more successful than the students at low- intermediate level in their guesses of the meaning of unknown words. It was observed that the students at intermediate level considered the whole passage and tried to get its main idea, whereas the students at low-intermediate level focused on individual words and attempted to guess their meaning.

In the current study, expanding on this line of research, we tried to discover the type of knowledge sources that Iranian EFL learners at high and low intermediate level use to guess the meaning of unknown words and differences between the students at these two levels in terms of the type of knowledge sources used and success in guessing. We also investigated the potential effect of gender on lexical inferencing. Since no other study was found in the literature to examine the effect of sex on lexical inferencing, it can be said that this study is the first one in this regard.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

Having reviewed previous studies on lexical inferencing, a replication study was conducted in an EFL context, Iran, to address the following questions:

1. What type of knowledge sources do high-intermediate and low-intermediate Iranian EFL learners use to infer the meaning of unknown words from the context? It is hypothesized that there are differences between the students at these two levels in terms of the type of knowledge sources that they use in lexical inferencing.

2. Are there any differences between the learners at these two levels in terms of correct guessing and use of knowledge sources? It seems that the high proficient students may be more successful in inferring the meaning of unknown words.

3. Can gender have any potential effect on the use of knowledge sources and success in guessing the meaning? It is assumed that sex do not have any potential effect on the use of knowledge sources and success in lexical inferencing.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The population from which the participants were chosen included the EFL learners who were enrolled in a language institute in Isfahan. To divide the participants into high and low intermediate levels, first the FCE was given to them, and then based on their scores forty students were selected. As a result, twenty high-intermediate level students (8 female and 12 male) and twenty low- intermediate level students (11 female and 9male) participated in this study.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study: FCE test, and four reading passages. The reason for the use of FCE test was twofold: first to select the intended participants, and second to divide them into low and high-intermediate levels (see Appendix A).

In order to find the type of inferencing strategies and knowledge sources used by EFL learners to guess the meaning of unknown words, those four reading passages were chosen for the study (see Appendix B). To motivate the participants to take the reading task eagerly, the four passages were funny short stories. The short stories were read in their usual class sessions, one at a time by the students and their usual teachers assigned them in class.

C. Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected in four consecutive weeks. Each week in one session, the students were asked to read one of the passages and underline the unknown words, then to guess the meaning of unknown words. After carrying out these steps, they wrote about how they guessed the meaning of unknown words, what strategies they used in guessing, and what helped them to guess the meanings in passages. They could write the meanings of words both in English and in Persian. At the end of the forth week, all the data were checked and categorized according to Paribakht and Wesche's (1999) classification. The categorization is as follows:

1. Homonymy: As Paribakht & Wesche, (1999, p.209) state learners use their knowledge of sound relationships or the phonetic similarity between the target word and another word in the learners' mental lexicon to guess the meaning of an unknown word. The association may be with an L1 word or another L2 word and is often misleading.

2. Morphology: This category includes knowledge of derivations and grammatical inflections.

3. Word associations: They include paradigmatic relations (e.g. synonyms or antonyms), syntagmatic relations (e.g. words in the same category), and members of the same taxonomy (superordinates, subordinates, coordinates).

4. Sentence-level grammatical knowledge: This category includes knowledge of relationships in the sentence such as word-class information and syntactic category of the word.

5. Discourse knowledge: It includes using information from beyond sentence boundaries such as the knowledge of cohesive devices and establishing semantic links.

6. Cognates: As Richards et al. (1985) state "cognates are words in one language which is similar in form and meaning to a word in another language" (Richards et al., 1985, p.43).

7. World knowledge: This category is related to the familiarity of the theme and topic of the text to the learner.

8. Punctuation: This refers to mechanics of writing.

D. Data Analysis

In analyzing the data, the grammatical classes of the underlined words were not taken into consideration since the focus of this study was to find the lexical inferencing strategies used by the EFL learners. All the inferences gathered from high-intermediate and low-intermediate level students, either correct or incorrect, were counted and categorized for each level to have an overall idea of the inferences. Then the correct inferences were counted, their percentages were taken, and the knowledge sources used by the students at high-intermediate level and low-intermediate level were compared. The data were analyzed according to Paribakht and Wesche's classification as noted above with one modification. That is, punctuation category was not included since it was not used by the students who participated in this study.

V. RESULTS

To investigate the hypothesized relationships among the variables under study such as knowledge sources, lexical inferencing strategies, levels of proficiency, and gender differences, the analysis of the data yielded a number of results which will be reported in this section.

As shown in Table-1 below, for the first reading passage, the students at low-intermediate level made a total of 108 inferences (42 of them were correct, 39%), whereas the students at high-intermediate level made a total of 87 inferences (57of them were correct, 66%).

TABLE-1:
INFERENCES USED BY LOW-INTERMEDIATE AND HIGH-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL STUDENTS FOR PASSAGE 1

	Homonymy		Morphology		Word-association		Sentence-level grammatical knowledge		Discourse knowledge		Cognate		World knowledge		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
All inferences LI	9	8	27	25	8	7.5	34	32	9	8	7	6.5	14	13	108	100
Correct inferences LI	0	0	10	24	5	12	14	33	3	7	5	12	5	12	42	100
All inferences HI	1	1	10	11.5	14	16	10	11.5	28	32	5	6	19	22	87	100
Correct inferences HI	0	0	5	9	9	16	5	9	19	33	5	9	14	24	57	100

As shown in Table-2, for the second reading passage, the students at low-intermediate level made a total of 128 inferences (65 of them were correct, 51%) and the students at high-intermediate level made a total of 107 inferences (81 of them were correct, 76%).

TABLE-2:
INFERENCES USED BY LOW-INTERMEDIATE AND HIGH-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL STUDENTS FOR PASSAGE 2

	Homonymy		Morphology		Word-association		Sentence-level grammatical knowledge		Discourse knowledge		Cognate		World knowledge		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
All inferences LI	3	2	29	23	12	9	38	30	23	18	9	7	14	11	128	100
Correct inferences LI	0	0	15	23	7	11	19	29	6	9	9	14	9	14	65	100
All inferences HI	2	2	11	10	17	16	14	13	37	34.5	7	6.5	19	18	107	100
Correct inferences HI	1	1	4	5	12	15	9	11	33	41	6	7	16	20	81	100

For the third reading passage, the students at low-intermediate made a total of 116 inferences (60 of them were correct, 52%) and the students at high-intermediate level made a total of 98 inferences (75 of them were correct, 77%), see table 3.

TABLE-3:
INFERENCES USED BY LOW-INTERMEDIATE AND HIGH-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL STUDENTS FOR PASSAGE 3

	Homonymy		Morphology		Word-association		Sentence-level grammatical knowledge		Discourse knowledge		Cognate		World knowledge		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
All inferences LI	6	5	25	21	10	9	37	32	16	14	6	5	16	14	116	100
Correct inferences LI	0	0	14	23	3	5	27	45	6	10	3	5	7	12	60	100
All inferences HI	1	1	10	10	15	15.5	12	12	35	36	5	5	20	20.5	98	100
Correct inferences HI	1	1	7	9	11	15	8	11	28	37	5	7	15	20	75	100

As it can be seen in Table-4, for the forth reading passage, the students at low-intermediate level made a total of 93 inferences (44 of them were correct, 47%), whereas the students at high-intermediate level made a total of 85 inferences (59 of them were correct, 69%).

TABLE-4:
INFERENCES USED BY LOW-INTERMEDIATE AND HIGH-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL STUDENTS FOR PASSAGE 4

	Homonymy		Morphology		Word-association		Sentence-level grammatical knowledge		Discourse knowledge		Cognate		World knowledge		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
All inferences LI	4	4	17	18	8	9	31	33	12	13	8	9	13	14	93	100
Correct inferences LI	0	0	10	23	4	9	16	36	3	7	6	14	5	11	44	100
All inferences HI	0	0	9	11	14	16	11	13	30	35	4	5	17	20	85	100
Correct inferences HI	0	0	4	7	10	17	6	10	24	41	2	3	13	22	59	100

Using Paribakht and Wesche's classification, we investigated the research questions regarding the subjects' lexical inferencing strategies. The results will be explained in order.

In terms of ' homonymy' category, it was seen that the subjects at low-intermediate level tried to infer the meanings of unknown words by using more sound relations between words in L2 and all their guesses were incorrect. This finding is consistent with the claim that students with low proficiency in L2 often try to associate new words by using phonetic similarities. The subjects made wrong guesses such as 'remain' for the word 'remind', 'apparent' for the word 'appear', 'weather' for the word 'whether', 'big' for the word 'beg', 'forest' for the word ' famous'. The subjects at high-intermediate level employed this category for 4 guesses, and just 2 of them were correct.

In terms of 'morphology' category, it was used for 27 of 108 cases in passage 1 (10 correct guesses), 29 of 128 cases in passage 2 (15 correct guesses), 25 of 116 cases in passage 3 (14 correct guesses) and 17 of 93 cases in passage 4 (10 correct guesses) by the students at low-intermediate level. On the other hand, the students at high-intermediate level employed this category 10 of 87 cases in passage 1 (5 correct guesses), 11 of 107 cases in passage 2 (4 correct guesses), 10 of 98 cases in passage 3 (7 correct guesses) and 9 of 85 cases in passage 4 (4 correct guesses).

From the data, it can be said that the subjects at low-intermediate level tried to infer the meanings of unknown words by considering their inflections, derivations, i.e. morphological relationships between words, and they were successful in using this inferencing strategy.

The 'word- association' category accounted for 8 of 108 cases in passage 1 (5 correct guesses), 12 of 128 cases in passage 2 (7 correct guesses), 10 of 116 cases in passage 3 (3 correct guesses) and 8 of 93 cases in passage 4 (4 correct guesses) at low-intermediate level data. However, the students at high-intermediate level used this category 14 of 87 cases in passage 1 (9 correct guesses), 17 of 107 cases in passage 2 (12 correct guesses), 15 of 98 cases in passage 3 (11 correct guesses) and 14 of 85 cases in passage 4 (10 correct guesses). It was seen that high-intermediate level students tried to establish associations of the words by using synonyms and antonyms more than low-intermediate level students. This observation compatibly fits with prior research findings in this vein (İstifçi, 2009). It is suggested in the literature that more proficient L2 learners make more word-associations than less proficient learners, and their guesses are often more correct than less proficient students'.

In terms of 'sentence-level grammatical knowledge' category, it was seen that the subjects at low-intermediate level tried to guess the meanings of unknown words by looking at the grammatical category of words: 34 of 108 cases in passage 1 (14 correct guesses), 38 of 128 cases in passage 2 (19 correct guesses), 37 of 116 in passage 3 (27 correct guesses) and 31 of 93 in passage 4 (16 correct guesses). The students at high-intermediate level, on the other hand, employed this category 10 of 87 cases in passage 1 (5 correct guesses), 14 of 107 cases in passage 2 (9 correct guesses), 12 of 98 cases in passage 3 (8 correct guesses) and 11 of 85 cases in passage 4 (6 correct guesses).

The ' discourse knowledge' category was the one which was mostly used by the students at high-intermediate level. Not only did the students at high-intermediate level use this category more than the students at low-intermediate level, but also the percentage of their correct guesses was higher than that of less proficient students.

The subjects at low-intermediate level used this category 9 of 108 cases in passage 1 (3 correct guesses), 23 of 128 cases in passage 2 (6 correct guesses), 16 of 116 cases in passage 3 (6 correct guesses), and 12 of 93 cases in passage 4 (3 correct guesses). The students at high-intermediate level employed this category 28 of 87 cases in passage 1 (19 correct guesses), 37 of 107 cases in passage 2 (33 correct guesses), 35 of 98 cases in passage 3 (28 correct guesses) and 30 of 85 cases in passage 4 (24 correct guesses). It can be said that the students used their knowledge of cohesive devices to link the words in the texts, and considered units larger than sentence to guess the meanings of unknown words. The difference between the students at two levels was more salient in passage 2 that the students at high-intermediate level made 33 correct guesses whereas the students at low-intermediate level made 6 correct guesses.

In terms of 'cognates', the students at low-intermediate level used more cognates to infer the meanings of unknown words than the students at high-intermediate level. For passage 1, the students at low-intermediate level made 7 guesses (5 of them were correct), for passage 2, 9 guesses (all of them were correct), for passage 3, 6 guesses (3 of them were correct) and for passage 4, 8 guesses (6 of them were correct), whereas the students at high-intermediate level made 5 guesses for both passage 1 and passage 3 and all of them were correct. For passage 2, 7 guesses were made (6 correct

ones) and for passage 4, 4 guesses were made (2 correct ones). The students used the words that were similar to the words in their L1 such as 'heater', 'balcony', 'battery', 'festivities'.

The 'world knowledge' was another category which the students at high-intermediate level used more than the students at low-intermediate level, and also they were more successful than the students at low-intermediate level. The students at low-intermediate level made 14 guesses in passage 1 (5 of them were correct), whereas the students at high-intermediate level made 19 guesses (14 of them were correct). For the passage 2, the students at low-intermediate level made 14 guesses (9 of them were correct), while the students at high-intermediate level made 19 guesses (16 of them were correct).

For passage 3, the students at low-intermediate level made 16 guesses (7 of them were correct), whereas the students at high-intermediate level made 20 guesses (15 of them were correct). For passage 4, the students at low-intermediate level made 13 guesses (5 of them were correct), while the students at high-intermediate level made 17 guesses (13 of them were correct).

It should be noted that none of the students used the 'punctuation' category, so it was not included in the analysis.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As a result of data analysis, a number of findings emerged that will be delineated and discussed in this section. When considering all the lexical inferences made by the students, it can be said that the students at high-intermediate level were more successful than the students at low-intermediate level in guessing the meaning of unknown words. The finding that the students at high-intermediate level were more successful in making correct lexical inferences is consistent with the findings of the studies conducted by Lee and Wolf (1997) and Nassaji (2004). Nassaji's (2004) findings indicated that lexical inference is significantly influenced by the richness of the learner's pre-existing semantic system. This system develops cumulatively; therefore, such richness is brought about gradually as the learner's proficiency improves. It can be said that the students at the two levels tried to use a wide variety of inferencing strategies.

The students used almost all the categories except punctuation category; however, the percentage of correct guesses was higher at high-intermediate level than low-intermediate level.

Low-intermediate level students tried to associate the unknown words with the words they already knew, and some of their guesses were wrong. As Levin et al. (1979) (cited in Lawson & Hogben, 1996) state, the foreign language learners who are quite early in their foreign language studies acquire vocabulary using mnemonic techniques or strategies which involve cognates and phoneme correspondences.

When analyzing the data, it was found that the students at low-intermediate level used 'sentence-level grammatical knowledge' category most frequently, and from this finding it can be said that the students at low-intermediate level concentrated more on the words and syntactic category of the words while reading the passages and tried to guess the meanings of unknown words. They needed to know the meanings of all words in the passage to understand it.

On the other hand, the students at high-intermediate level, both male and female, used 'discourse knowledge' category the most and tried to find the meanings of unknown words by considering the whole passage. They tried to understand the whole passage by looking at the context, and getting the general idea of the passage. It is suggested in the literature that more proficient students find associations more easily and establish a network of associations when they see or hear a word than low-ability students (Kess, 1992; Richards, 1991).

As Kern (1989) states more advanced learners use the context in order to decide the meaning of an unknown word, try to make guesses on the basis of what is familiar to them, and they are more successful than low-ability learners. Nassaji (2006) claims that those learners who possess a deeper lexical knowledge have better access to the knowledge sources and, hence, can construct a more accurate semantic representation of the unknown word during lexical inferencing than those who do not. Haynes (1993) claims that L2 readers are apt to mis-recognize new forms as familiar ones, and other authors point out the problems of form confusion for L2 readers. For example, Huckin and Bloch (1993) found the most serious mistakes in L2 word inferencing were caused by mistaken identity, and if word recognition is uncertain, the effectiveness of inferencing must be impaired. Schmitt & Meara (1997) also found that L2 readers were apt to mistake a lower frequency word for a higher frequency one with a similar form.

It is noteworthy that it seemed to be no difference between the male and female students regarding the type of inferencing strategy used and the success in their guesses. Both male and female students at low-intermediate level used 'sentence-level grammatical knowledge' the most, and both male and female students at high-intermediate level mostly used 'discourse knowledge'. In terms of their success, no difference was found depending on the students' sex.

Based on the findings obtained in this study, a number of implications are drawn which can possibly assist language practitioners and teachers in the EFL context. First and foremost, language teachers can involve their students with such tasks in the classroom so as to boost their vocabulary knowledge at both receptive and productive levels. Second, students can be exposed to different types of authentic reading passages and encouraged to guess the meaning of unknown words.

Another one is that, while teaching students to guess the meaning of unknown words, teachers should warn them to consider the whole sentence and not to rely on individual words, since the context can affect the meaning of words.

APPENDIX A: FCE TEST

Part 1

You are going to read a newspaper article about bookshops which sell books for travelers. For questions 1-15, choose from the shops (A-G). The shops may be chosen more than once. There is an example at the beginning.

Of which shop is the following stated?

1. No other shop in the country has as many maps and guides. B
2. The assistant found out about the writer's plans before making suggestions.
3. The assistants were very busy.
4. Despite its size. The shop is well-organized.
5. The writer liked the fact that it was quiet in the shop.
6. Books the writer considered not very suitable were recommended to him.
7. The assistant did not know that the books on Orlando were kept in two places.
8. The books on Orlando were said to be of a similar quality to each other.
9. The shop had the best selection of books other than maps and guides.
10. The assistant tried to find out if any more books on Cuba were available.
11. The shop is currently being made bigger.
12. The assistant recommended a book that the shop didn't have.
13. The size of the shop is one of its good points.
14. The assistant looked for information on books that don't exist.
15. The writer's request was treated as a matter of urgency.

Buying travel Books

I visited 7 bookshops around the country. I asked an assistant to recommend a detailed, critical guide to Orlando in Florida, USA, and to make some suggestions for general reading about Cuba.

Shop A: A joy for three reasons: firstly, the spacious shop and its hushed, library- like atmosphere; secondly, the country- by –country layout; and thirdly, the extensive range of general material on each country. Other shops have a better stock of maps and guides, but not of country- related novels, biographies, cookery and history books. There is a second hand section on the top floor. There was a moderate selection of Orlando guides; The Unofficial Guide was given top recommendation, although it was not in the stock. There was an excellent choice of reading on Cuba, including an anthology of Cuba writers.

Shop B: The strength of the shop lies in its range of maps and guides – both unequelled in Britain. Its UK department is divided into regions, with excellent themed sections on every thing from climbing to canals. However, travel-related literature is limited. There were only three Orlando guides in stock and I was told that there was ' not much to choose between them'. As for Cuba, I was told ' there really isn't much general reading matter'. In fact, they had only three books on the island in the stock.

Shop C: A relatively small shop with a casual atmosphere. Most books are arranged by country. The diversity of reading mater- not just current travel- writing, but fiction, biography and valuable old guides- make browsing an adventure. Hearing my inquiry, the assistant rushed around as if her life depended on it. Fourteen Orlando guides were in stock and the Unofficial guide was recommended. I could find only two general books on Cuba, but checks were made on the computer and in the travel-writing section for others.

Shop D: In this monumental building, the travel department comprises a map section, guides and a fairly limited travel-writing section. Staff was pressed for time because there was no help desk and customers were waiting to pay for books. There was a guide choice of Orlando guides, but the assistant picked out two of the least appropriate. As for Cuba, he suggested a certain novel and referred me to the shop's history department. He failed to mention The Land of Miracles, which was the only relevant title I actually found there.

Shop E: There were a large range of guides. Some mainstream travel-writing at some maps at one of its branches and an impressive heap selection a smaller choice of guides and no travel-writing at the other. The branches are three minutes' walk apart and staff offer to check what is in other branches, but the split is thoroughly unhelpful. There was a good selection of Orlando guides, but the assistant didn't check the shelves (The Unofficial Guide was there), and instead used the computer to try to find guides that have never in fact been published. For Cuba, travel literature is arranged by author. No recommendations were offered; instead, some seventy titles were brought up on the computer.

Shop F: The shop had a large, well laid-out stock of maps and guides, and an extensive collection of general reading material. The owners are extending the shop but work should have finished in six weeks. Eighteen Orlando guides were in stock. The assistant asked detailed questions about my trip and then made recommendations. For Cuba, she picked out The Land of Miracles (the only general reading on Cuba in stock), and suggested I look in the shop's history selection.

Shop G: Although hardly bigger than a large sitting room, it is orderly, maximizes its space and has a good range of guides. There is a limited travel-writing section filled by author. There was a good selection of Orlando guides, but some were filled under 'F' for Florida and others under 'O' for Orlando. The assistant found only the latter and missed the others. I was told, incorrectly, that there was nothing on Cuba in the travel-writing section. Instead, I was directed to

the regional studies department, which had more than a dozen relevant historical and political books, but nothing specifically about travel.

Part 2

You are going to read a newspaper article about a couple and their unusual way of life. Choose the most suitable heading from the list A-I for each paragraph (1-7) of the article. There is one extra heading which you don't need to use.

A: not every one's choice
B: striking a balance
C: spreading the message
D: taking on a role
E: interesting objects
F: a life long interest
G: knowing where to look
H: a gloomy look
I: keeping away from modern technology

In their own time

John Holt meets a couple who are trying to re-create the style of the 1940s in their own home.

0: I

Steve and Marylin Saunders are a couple with a difference. They don't want washing machines, dish washers, satellite dishes or computers. Instead, they are nostalgic for an age they never knew, and their dream is to head back to the 1940s.

1: Trapped in the modern times, however, they've had no choice but to do the next best thing and turn their home into a living museum. The look they've spent so long creating is intended to be a re-enactment of the past. Steve and Marylin enjoy acting the part, to the point where both dress in authentic forties clothing, right down, apparently, to their underwears.

2: 'It was the clothes which initially started my interest in the period', says Maryln. That was sixteen years ago, just after they got married and gradually the interest turned into an obsession as more and more items for the forties were acquired from searching through jumble sales and antique stalls to replace their modern possessions.

3: The problem was that all this period style was coming together in an inappropriately modern house. Something had to be done and the house was put up for sale. Ironically, however, all that hard work spent re-creating the 1940s meant that the young buyers who came viewing were scared away. 'They couldn't understand why it looked so different', says Marylin, 'and it took us two years to sell in the end'.

4: The authentic 1940s color scheme is now applied to a more suitable house. 'The kitchen is full of dark yellow and green', says Marylin, ' and the rest of the house features brown. We've also used a lot of special paint called distemper which comes in only one color, a moldy green. It all helps to develop the right kind of depressing feel which was so typical of the period.

5: The accessories which decorate the house add the telling touches: there is the classic old telephone, oval mirrors and a polished wooden clock. The star attraction is a working 1949 television set bought for $ 350. 'The house had most of its period features, such as the doors, says Marylin, ' but the bathroom was painted a nasty 1960s pink. We've now put in an original Art Deco bath and sink, and the period tiles complete the look'.

6: Compromises with the modern world have had to be made, but they make sure these have been kept to a minimum. They have a video, but use it only to watch films appropriate to the time. They also have a CD player, but it's used only to provide thirties and forties music.

7: Their interest in the music from the past has led them to set up a series of forties-style dances in the area, where everyone is encouraged to come in the period dress. These have been so successful that the couple has started a 1940s society. It may be an advanced form of escapism, but for some the future is definitely in the past.

APPENDIX B: THE SHORT STORIES

The Wedding Gift

Ray's wedding had gone off without a hitch. Everyone seemed to have had a good time. A few people had too good of a time; they went home with designated drivers. All evening, the gift table remained unguarded. Who would steal anything, Ray thought. He had never heard of such a thing happening at a wedding. But his best friend, Aaron said there was a first time for everything. He strolled out regularly from the inside festivities to check on the gift table, making sure no one suspicious was hanging around it.

Ray and Julia went on a three-week honeymoon to Italy right after the wedding. When they got back, they opened all the gifts and sent out thank you notes. But there was one problem. A married couple that used to be good friends had apparently given nothing. This surprised Julia, because Walt and Marry said they were thrilled to be invited. And, they actually seemed to have had a great time at the wedding. Frankly, Ray didn't even care if they hadn't given a gift. He just needed to know whether to send a thank you note. Ray called Aaron. Aaron said may be Walt had left an envelope on the gift table like Aaron had. "Yes but we got your envelope with the cash inside," Ray said.

"Maybe my envelope looked too thin, and some thief thought Walt's envelope looked nice and fat".

Text 1

Carbon Monoxide

Helen stepped outside her front door to see what the weather was like. It was sunny and warm. That was nice, because for the past two weeks it had been cold and rainy. It had been so cold that she had had to turn her heater on. She was lucky, because her heater worked and she could pay her heating bills.

Some people in Los Angeles were not so lucky. Unable to use their home heaters, they placed charcoal into a barbecue grill and lit it. The heat kept them warm, but the carbon monoxide killed them. This happens almost every winter in Los Angeles. People shut all the windows tight to keep the cold out, and then light the charcoal. Soon enough, the oxygen in their home is consumed by the open flames. The family suffocates to death.

Everyone knows that smoke detectors are required in Los Angeles. But many people don't know about, or think they need, carbon monoxide detectors. They're not expensive. A $25 investment can save a family from death. People always think that nothing bad will happen to them; it always happens to " the other guy". So they forget to put fresh batteries into their smoke detectors annually, and they don't bother to buy carbon monoxide.

Text: 2

Monkeys Cause Man's Death

A florist in Delhi, India fell to his death after he was attacked by a gang of monkeys. He was on his balcony watering his plants. Three monkeys, which usually were friendly beggars, sat on his balcony railing and watched. They were hoping that he would offer them some food. When he finished watering the plants, he sat down in a chair to enjoy the sunset.

The monkeys waited a minute. When they realized that he was not going to feed them anything, they leaped on him. They scratched his face and pulled at his hair and his clothes. Bleeding and screaming, he panicked. Instead of going back into his apartment through the sliding glass door, he leapt off his balcony. He lived on the second floor; it was only ten feet to the pavement below. However, he struck the pavement head first, immediately breaking his neck.

The monkeys jumped to the pavement. They dug through his shirt and pants pockets looking for food. One monkey took off with his keys. As humans destroy the forests in India, monkeys like these are getting hungrier and more aggressive.

"Our monkeys are getting out of control," said a neighbor. He said he had already barricaded his balcony with barbed wire. "It's ugly, I must admit. A balcony shouldn't look like the outside of a prison. My neighbors want me to take it down. They say the barbed wire might injure the monkeys and it's unsightly. But I'll bet that some of my neighbors will be going to the hardware store tomorrow".

Text: 3

The Spitter

Rudy and Brenda were walking on the sidewalk, approaching the coffee shop. A young man was sitting at an outside table. There were four chairs at the table, but he was by himself. Just before Rudy and Brenda got up to his table, the young man spit on the sidewalk. Rudy said to Brenda, "watch out for the spit," and glared at the young man.

How dare he spit on the side walk just as Rudy and Brenda were approaching? But there was nothing Rudy could say in front of Brenda- she would get angry. She was always telling him to ignore jerks. So he ignored this jerk. They found a nearby table with only one chair. Rudy grabbed a chair from the young man's table, and he sat down.

Rudy went around the corner to buy a newspaper from the newsstand. When he returned, he noticed that the young man was gone. Rudy asked Brenda what she wanted to drink. She said she wasn't thirsty. He walked inside to get himself a coffee. Surprised, he saw that the person behind the counter was the spitter from outside.

"You work here?" Rudy asked.

"What does it look like?" the young man said.

"Where's your supervisor?" Rudy asked.

"He is on break", the young man said. He definitely had an attitude, Rudy thought. Rudy ordered an extra large orange juice and an extra large latte. A few minutes later, the young man placed them on the counter and said, "Eight dollars".

Rudy asked for a small cup of water with ice. When the young man turned around to put the ice into a cup, Rudy knocked both of his extra large drinks over. The latte spilled onto the counter and then onto the floor behind the counter. The orange juice spilled into the tip basket, which was full of coins and bills. The young man turned around, looked at the mess, and glared at Rudy. Rudy said, "Forget the water," and walked out.

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Mansoor Tavakoli has a Ph. D in applied linguistics. He has been teaching TEFL courses for seventeen years at the University of Isfahan. His research interests are: language assessment, second language acquisition, and language teaching methodology. He has also published several articles in these areas.

Samira Hayati has an MA in TEFL. She has been teaching English courses for six years at several institutes. Her research interests are: reading comprehension, vocabulary learning, and foreign language teaching and learning. She has also presented some articles in different conferences.

On the Effect of Reciprocal Teaching Strategy on EFL Learners' Reading Proficiency

Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi
Shahrood University of Technology, Iran
Email: saostovarnamaghi@yahoo.com

Mohammad-Reza Shahhosseini
Islamic Azad University, Garmsar Branch, Iran

Abstract—**This study aimed at exploring the comparative effect of reciprocal teaching on EFL learners' reading proficiency. From the total population of freshmen at Shahrood University of Technology (SUT) who enrolled for the General English course, 120 students were randomly selected. The researcher administered and scored the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) and then selected subjects whose raw scores were one standard deviation above and below the arithmetic mean. All in all, 70 students were paired based on their rank score. Subjects of the same rank were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups and were instructed through transmission and reciprocal models respectively. A second test, i.e. TOFL, was used for pre-test and post-test. The results showed: (1) a significant (at the 0.05 level) difference in how the control and experimental groups performed in the post test; (2) a significant (at the 0.05 level) difference in how the experimental group performed in pre-test and post test.**

Index Terms—**reciprocal teaching, transmission model, experimental research**

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Doolittle, et al. (2006), the general methodology of reciprocal teaching involves the instructor and students reading a section of the text in small groups. The instructor then leads a discussion of the text, while modeling appropriate reading comprehension strategies. During this dialogue and modeling process, the instructor encourages students to ask questions of both the text and strategies. The instructor uses this dialogue to foster both reading comprehension and strategic cognition. This general process of reading, dialoguing, and clarifying, continues throughout the length of the text. However, as students become more facile with the dialogue process and the reading comprehension strategies, the instructor begins to have students take the role of instructor or dialogue leader. As students begin to lead the dialogue process, the instructor assumes the role of guide or facilitator, rather than a leader.

Researchers gave several reasons why teachers should choose reciprocal teaching as an appropriate instructional approach to help students comprehend difficult text. Reciprocal teaching allows the students to monitor their progress and assume the ultimate responsibility for their learning from the text regardless of the content covered in a particular class (Slater & Horstman, 2002). This method allows students to take ownership over their reading and learning (Hashey & Connors, 2003). By gaining control of their learning while they read, students also have the potential to become better self-regulators of their reading (Hacker & Tenent, 2002) Reciprocal teaching drastically improves the quality of classroom discussions since all students are able and expected to participate and provide input and thought into the group dialogue (Hashey & Connors, 2003). When combined with the use of reading journals and writing prompts, reciprocal teaching has also been shown to be very effective in helping students to become more proficient writers (Slater & Horstman, 2002). Research results emphasized the benefits of using reciprocal teaching in:

- teaching students at different levels, and in different subjects regardless of students' abilities (Myers, 2006);
- helping students acquire vocabulary and reading comprehension for low-achievers in elementary grades in Basic level (Todd, 2006);
- improving students' achievement in standardized tests (Brand-Gruwel, Aarnoustes, & Van Den Bos,1998).
- developing students higher order thinking skills (Hacker & Tenent, 2002).

Barton, et al. (2002) recommends that teachers incorporate reading and learning strategies that help students activate prior knowledge, make sense of unfamiliar text styles, and master difficult vocabulary. Radcliffe, et al. (2004) demonstrated that explicit strategies promote engagement of prior knowledge and self monitoring in students while reading. Barton, et al. (2002) explains that reading and learning are constructive processes: each learner actively draws on prior knowledge and experience to make sense of new information. The more knowledge and skills that students bring to a text, the better they will learn from and remember what they read. Best, et al. (2005) explains that when students make connections while reading through inferential thought, deep-level comprehension will follow. Deep comprehension, as described by Best, et al. (2005) is requiring more than interpretations of sentences.

Brown and Palinscar (1989) have noted that reciprocal teaching is explained by three related theories of guided learning: Vigotsky's zone of proximal development (Vigotsky, 1978), Proleptic teaching (Wertsch & Stone, 1976; Rogoff & Gardner, 1984), and expert scaffolding (Wood, Bruner, & Ross,1976).

Vigotsky (1978) observed that a child has two developmental levels. One is the actual developmental level, the level at which children can independently deal with tasks. The other is the level of potential development, or the level at which a child can solve a problem with the assistance of a teacher or in collaboration with other children. The zone of proximal development is the area between "the actual development level of the child and the level of potential development" (Vigotsky, 1978, pp. 85-86). Learners can push themselves from the actual developmental level to the potential level or learn beyond their actual development level with explicit scaffolding through social interaction until they internalize the strategies (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994).

Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) were the first to use the term *scaffolding* in its educational sense. According to Greenfield (1994), scaffolding teaching is adapted to the learner's current learning state; when the learners' skills are developed, the teachers scaffolding is decreased, and if the text is difficult, greater assistance and feedback are given to the students in order to shape their understanding. However, the teacher acts as a facilitator after the students do not need much help. Scaffolding is eventually internalized and thus promotes the independent performance of reading skills. Scaffolding has been variously defined as:

• a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts (Rogoff, 1990, p.93);

• what teachers say and do to enable children to complete complex mental tasks they could not complete without assistance" (Pearson & Fielding, 1991, p. 842);

• a process whereby a teacher monitors student s' learning carefully and steps in to provide assistance on an as-needed basis (Wharton-MacDonald, 1998, et al, p.116); and

• a temporary supportive structure that teachers create to assist a student or a group of students to accomplish a task that they could not complete alone (Graves, Waltts, & Graves, 1994. p.44).

The important feature of proleptic teaching is the transfer of responsibility from teacher to students. The teacher explains and models the process of solving problems, and while decreasing his or her role, transfers the responsibility of solving problems to the students (Rogoff & Gardner, 1984). Proleptic teaching is defined as teaching in anticipation of competence (Brown, Campione, Ferrrara, Reeve, & Palinscar, 1991). A proleptic teacher could be described as one who has high expectations and believes in his or her student s' ability to meet them. Regardless of a student s' perceived ability or level of intelligence, the teacher assumes that the student is capable and will eventually be able to accomplish the task as an expert would. In contrast, instruction that embodies a hierarchical stepwise pattern (Gagne, 1985) communicates to the children that all a teacher expects is the mastery of one point in development, which, according to Palinscar and Herrenkohl (2002), is an inefficient use of instructional time.

Despite the pedagogical implications of reciprocal teaching and its strong theoretical foundations, in many EFL contexts, including Iran, banking system is the dominant model of language education. Compared with reciprocal teaching, this system defines:

• the textbook as the only reliable source of knowledge;

• teachers as the mechanical channels through which knowledge is transmitted to the learners;

• learners as empty vessels waiting to be filled.

This conception of teaching and learning is limited and limiting. It is limited in that it produces a host of well-trained parrots who see their role as echoing the content of the book. It is limiting in that it makes students take the truth value of the content of the textbook for granted since it inculcates the idea that the right answer comes from the book rather than from reasoning. Far from focusing on the transmission of information, the theoretical underpinnings of reciprocal teaching, i.e. zone of proximal development, proleptic teaching and scaffolding, focus on the construction of meaning in the dialogical process of interaction between the teacher and the learners. Taking the theoretical foundations of reciprocal teaching into account, the researchers believe that substituting reciprocal teaching with the transmission model can significantly improve students reading comprehension deficiencies in EFL contexts including Iran.

A. Purposes of the Study

Based on their experience in language teaching in EFL contexts, the researchers hypothesize that reciprocal teaching is more effective than traditional transmission model in teaching reading proficiency. However, this perceived efficiency of reciprocal teaching may be due to chance factors or error of measurement. Thus the study aims at testing the following null hypotheses:

H0$_1$: Reciprocal teaching and transmission model have the same effect on students' reading proficiency, i.e. $\mu R = \mu T$

H0$_2$: Reciprocal teaching has no significant effect on EFL learners' reading proficiency, i.e. $\mu R1 = \mu R2$

B. Limitations of the Study

Although the study was true experimental in design, it may suffer from external validity since the results may not be generalized beyond the accessible population, i.e. students taking General English at Shahrood University of Technology (SUT). Moreover, although we believe that random selection and random assignment evenly distribute

initial differences in entry behavior and nullifies the effect of extraneous and intervening variables, claiming that the changes in the dependent variable, i.e. reading proficiency is brought about solely by the independent variable, i.e. reciprocal teaching is exaggerated for human subjects. Finally, the results of this study and other experimental studies should be generalized cautiously since we are generalizing the results of experimental conditions to non-experimental conditions. Compared with chemical substances, human subjects may behave quite differently under experimental and natural conditions.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Context

This study took place in SUT located in Semnan province, which has a population of nearly 10,000 students. Students taking General English at SUT comprise the accessible population of this study. Compared with students of humanities, students at universities on technology including SUT enjoy a good command of English. It is also worth noting that taking laboratory is an inseparable part of General English at this University. Although General courses are presented by different teacher, the laboratory is offered only by one teacher, i.e. one of the researchers. And it is this exclusive feature that made random selection and random assignment possible. Since universities of technology in Iran have conditions and students of similar background, the target population of this study can be taken as Universities of Technology in Iran.

B. Subjects

From the total population of freshmen at SUT who enrolled for the General English course, 120 students were randomly selected. They all took the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT). Having analyzed students' scores in CELT, the researcher selected students whose raw scores were one standard deviation above and below the arithmetic mean. Moreover, he used the results of this test to randomly assign students of the same rank to experimental and control groups. Students who did not fit the matching procedure were left out. All in all, 70 students, both male and female, aging between 18-20 years were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups.

C. Research Instrument

This study is based on the reading sub-test of two instruments: Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT); and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Both tests were administered to a similar sample to calculate their reliability. Both tests showed an acceptable reliability index ($\alpha = 0.79$). The first test, i.e. CELT, was used to homogenize the subjects and match entry behavior of subjects in the experimental and control groups. The second test, i.e. TOFL, was used for pre-test and post-test. More specifically, the study relies on the results of pre-test and post-test with the same test, i.e. TOEFL. The pre and post-test reading comprehension test consisted of 50 questions spread over 5 texts (see Appendix A). The post-test was administered to the subjects after one semester of instruction.

D. Operational Definition of Variables

The research hypothesis in this study aims at specifying the effect of reciprocal teaching, i.e. the independent variable, on reading proficiency, i.e. the dependent variable. In this study reading proficiency refers to students' scores in the reading section of the TOEFL. The independent variable or treatment refers to involving students in the dialogical process of understanding the text and the reciprocal teaching strategies. In the step-by-step process of reciprocal teaching the teacher:
- encouraged the students to read a section of the text in small groups;
- lead a discussion of the text;
- modeled appropriate reading comprehension strategies.
- encouraged students to ask questions of both the text and strategies;
- used this dialogue to foster both reading comprehension and students awareness of the strategies;
- continued the process of reading, dialoguing, and clarifying throughout the length of the text;
- began to have students take the role of instructor or dialogue leader as they became more facile with the dialogue process and the reading comprehension strategies; and
- assumed the role of guide or facilitator, rather than a leader.

E. Data Collection and Analysis

Having matched the students in control and experimental groups, the researchers taught the experimental group via reciprocal teaching and the control group via the transmission model which aims at form-focused activities that aim at enabling learners receive the meaning of the text. Prior to treatment, however, the TOEFL test was administered to both groups to make sure that there was no significant difference in students' performance in the test. Paired-sample t-test of significance showed that initially the two groups did not have any significant difference. After treatment, the same test was used as the post-test to test the following null hypothesis:

H0$_1$: Reciprocal teaching and transmission model have the same effect on students' reading proficiency, i.e. $\mu R = \mu T$

H0$_2$: Reciprocal teaching has no significant effect on EFL learners' reading proficiency, i.e. $\mu R1 = \mu R2$

In this formulation μR is the estimated population mean of the experimental group, i.e. the group taught through reciprocal teaching, μT is the estimated population mean of the control group, i.e. the group taught through transmission model, μR1 is the estimated population mean of experimental group in pre-test, and μR2 is the estimated population mean of the experimental group in post-test

III. RESULTS

The results of the study is based on three pairs of analysis: pair 1, shows the performance of the control and experimental groups prior to experimental treatment to account for entry behavior; pair 2 aims at comparing the effect of reciprocal teaching and transmission model as measured by the post-test; and pair 3 shows the proficiency gain related to experimental treatment. In all cases paired samples t-test was used since the subjects were assigned to experimental and control groups through a matching process, i.e. subjects of the same ranks were randomly assigned to the two groups. The results of the analysis are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Pre control - Pre experimental	-1.30000	5.99511	1.09455	-3.53861	.93861	-1.188	34	.245
Pair 2	Post control - Post experimental	-5.46667	5.99847	1.09517	-7.70653	-3.22680	-4.992	34	.000
Pair 3	Pre experimental – Post experimental	-4.63333	3.64345	.66520	-5.99382	-3.27285	-6.965	34	.000

Table 1 clearly shows that initially the two groups were not significantly different since the calculated t-statistic is t=1.188 and p-value is much bigger than 0.05 in pair 1. The table also clearly shows that the first null hypothesis is rejected since the calculated t-statistic is t = 4.992 and p =.000< 0.05). A small p-value such as this indicates the rejection of the null hypothesis and leads to the conclusion that the average difference in means across the paired observations is not zero, i.e., there is evidence of a significant (at the 0.05 level) difference in how the control and experimental groups performed in the post test. Therefore, H0 is rejected. This means compared with the transmission model, reciprocal teaching yielded significantly higher results.

Table 1 also shows that the second hypothesis is rejected since, as shown in pair 3, the calculated t-statistic is t = 6.965 and p = .000< 0.05). A small p-value such as this indicates rejection of the null hypothesis and leads to the conclusion that the average difference in means across the paired observations is not zero, i.e., there is evidence of a significant (at the 0.05 level) difference in how the experimental group performed in pre-test and post test. Therefore, H0 is rejected in favor of H1.There is a significant difference in performance between the performance of experimental group in pre-test and post-test. That is, experimental treatment or reciprocal teaching had a significant effect on learners' reading proficiency as measured by the TOEFL test.

IV. DISCUSSION

In this study, the subjects were trained to employ the four key strategies and to know what strategies to use, and when, why, and how to use each of them. They learned to predict, to generate questions, to identify the main idea of a paragraph, to clarify unclear words, phrases, or sentences, and to summarize their reading. The four key strategies helped them overcome difficulties when reading texts as they planned and monitored their comprehension, and evaluated their planning and its outcome. The results clearly showed that despite their homogeneous performance in pre-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test. This shows that reciprocal teaching has the edge over transmission model. Going beyond statistical significance, one can relate the differential effect of reciprocal teaching to the dialogical process of constructing the meaning of the text and the strategies which lead to the active involvement of the learners. Although initially, teacher-student interaction may dominate, as the course progresses gradually student-student interaction is more dominant. Having moved towards independence, learners transfer their training beyond the classroom borders. Thus the differential effect of reciprocal teaching may partially be related to student-student interaction outside the classroom.

Compared with reciprocal teaching which demands active construction of meaning, the transmission model defines learners' roles as nothing but the passive recipients of information. in addition to being passive students in the control group, are totally dependent on the teachers. Thus not only are they deprived from the meaningful activities of reciprocal teaching which are conducive to language development, they are also deprived of their own potential for interaction outside the classroom because the transmission model never provided them with any opportunity to interaction with each other.

In addition to its obvious edge over the transmission model in terms of proficiency gain, reciprocal teaching is more in tune with the heartbeat of language. Rather than being a unidirectional mechanism for receiving information, as it is

supposed by the traditional transmission model, language is mechanism for constructing meaning in the dialogical process of negotiation and interaction with the text and with the others. Taking these merits of reciprocal teaching into account, the researcher recommends the use of this method as a substitute for traditional models in EFL contexts.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In addition to yielding significantly higher proficiency gains in language learners, this approach, with its solid theoretical basis, has profound implications for all stakeholders. More specifically, it:

• redefines teachers' role as a facilitator of negation for meaning construction rather than a mechanical channel for unidirectional transmission of information;

• redefines learners roles as those who take charge of their learning and move towards autonomy rather than empty vessels waiting to be filled as defined by the transmission model;

• relocates the locus of meaning from the text to the dialogue. That is, rather than residing in the texts, meaning resides in the dialogical process of classroom interaction;

• paves the way for future democracy since democratic citizens actively create the meanings of roles, responsibility and rights through interacting and negotiating with others rather than passively accept them hierarchically;

• invites syllabus developers to select texts that are subjective to multiple interpretation rather than texts that convey one single objective meaning; and

• redefines language assessment as continuous and performance-based rather than final and paper-and-pencil-based.

Despite the profound pedagogical and social implications of reciprocal teaching, we cannot generalize the findings until it is replicated in other similar contexts, i.e. other universities presenting general English under similar conditions to SUT. Since private language schools operate under different conditions and purposes, the findings cannot be generalized to these institutes. Thus further studies need to be carried out to test the efficiency of this method beyond university contexts. Moreover, since learners perceptions of the method, affect their performance in the classroom, the field is in urgent need of qualitative studies that aim at theorizing learners' perceptions and perspectives concerning reciprocal teaching.

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Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi was born in 1969. Presently, he runs EAP courses at Shahrood University of Technology, Iran. His chief area of research interest is language teacher education. He has published in a number of leading peer-reviewed journals including the Reading Matrix, Teacher Education Quarterly, the Qualitative Report, and the Asian EFL Journal.

Mohammad-Reza Shahhosseini received his MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Gramsar branch in 2011. At the time being he has a tenured position at Shahrood University of Technology where he runs language laboratory. His area of research interest is innovations in language teaching.

Curricular Insights into Translingualism as a Communicative Competence

Clara Molina
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain
Email: clara.molina@uam.es

Abstract—**Translingual communicative competence remains underreported within recent research on multilingualism and plurilingualism. The outcomes of the MULTICOM curriculum development project, a European thematic network in multilingual communication aimed at providing university students with the translingual and transcultural skills needed to operate effectively at an international professional level, provide insights into the profile of translingualism as a communicative competence. The teaching and learning materials created to accompany the proposed curriculum framework reveal a significant departure from academic traditions in which language teaching has tended to neglect translingualism and the impact of multilingual settings in the interpretation of information. As discussed throughout the paper, rethinking the purpose of tasks and materials allows for awareness training, without which translingual communicative competence cannot be achieved. However, the implementation of an ecology-of-language approach to enhance plurilingualism and pluriculturalism requires rethinking the strategies that make for successful communication in multilingual settings and the definition of a translingual CEF in which partial competence and semilingualism is addressed.**

Index Terms—**multilingual settings, translingual communicative competence, partial competence, language teaching**

I. Introducing a Thematic Network in Multilingual Communication

MULTICOM is a Thematic Network project (1333996-LLP-1-2007-1-FR-ERASMUS-ECDSP) for curriculum development in multilingual communication. Building on the outcomes of previous projects launched by the European Commission, the project (2007-2010) aimed at designing a curricular framework which provided higher education language students with the translingual and transcultural skills needed to operate effectively at an international professional level. In focusing on domains other than teaching and translating, the project intended to broaden the career prospects of language graduates while addressing the ever increasing demand of highly-skilled multilingual experts who can mediate in a globalised scenario. As Busch (2009) states, "the European Union's Bologna Process currently urges universities to re-design their range of courses of study as bachelor and master programmes. In this process, universities are supposed to create courses enhancing their students' future job employability . . . With a rapidly changing society and concomitant changing patterns in employment, employability becomes a new moral duty" (p. 431).

Departing from a needs analysis, the MULTICOM project proceeded with the identification of professional competence profiles in multilingual communication, the definition of learning outcomes for a bachelor degree programme derived from such profiles, the actual outline of a curricular framework in multilingual communication and the design of teaching and learning materials, all of which feeds an online resource platform (http://www.multicom-cdp.eu/) that, when fully uploaded, will provide users with the tools for mastering the components within the curriculum.

Given the heterogeneity that remains within the European Higher Education Area almost a decade after the inception of the Bologna Process, the curricular framework resulting from the MULTICOM project does not aim at being implemented as is, but rather to provide a set of components which may be ingrained in various programmes, existing or prospective. The full set is meant to bring students to understand the nature, the principles and the channels of multilingual communication in a global context; to acquire the skills required to identify and process multilingual information relevant to specific knowledge areas and themes; to acquire the language-related IT skills needed to make efficient use of existing information searching and processing tools; and to use advanced oral and written mediation skills in a variety of multilingual professional contexts. Upon completion of the programme, students should have acquired professionally-oriented translingual and transcultural competences which involve, on the hand, the ability to produce, organise and disseminate information in three languages, adapting content to audiences from different backgrounds and using different media; and on the other hand, advanced mediation skills, such as the ability to organise multilingual meetings and produce minutes and conclusion reports in several languages; to draft synopses of multilingual documents; to assess translation and localisation needs for multilingual documentation; to interface with external language service industries, and the like.

A set of resource packages with plurilingual, transferable materials aimed at fostering the acquisition of translingual

and transcultural competence accompany the five curriculum components, namely, multilingual and intercultural communication; documentation and terminology processing; IT skills for multilingual communication; multilingual oral mediation skills; and multilingual written mediation skills. The accompanying resource packages are not prêt-à-porter readers, but flexible sets of materials (in different languages, for different purposes, aimed at different target groups) to be used in different ways in different programmes. Together with the customary items in course descriptions (aims, required proficiency levels, expected learning outcomes, performance criteria and assessment procedures, teaching and learning methodology…) each of the resource packages includes transversal, multi-skill activities targeted to the learning outcomes so as to train students to bring to bear multilingual competences in professional situations, as well as plurilingual source documents for hands-on work.

In all cases, the proposed activities encompass, on the one hand, the combination of at least three languages and, on the other, a focus on professional realism in multilingual settings. A token to illustrate the point: "You work for whatever international corporation. You have to locate and analyse documents to evaluate whatever aspect of the company in the various national locations where it is set. Then (i) write a report of your findings in language 1 (corporate language); (ii) produce a PowerPoint presentation summarising the report in language 2 (local language); (iii) deliver an oral presentation in language 3 (language of the target customer) with the aid of a plurilingual handout; (iv) produce leaflets and advertising materials (printed press, social networks, audiovisual…) in languages 1/2/3 adapting them to the relevant conventions; and (v) write the content of a plurilingual website for the corporation."

II. Bridging the Gap between Monolingual Classrooms and a Multilingual Global Scenario

The EU language policy highlights intercultural skills and communicative competence in foreign languages as key factors of employability and success in the global marketplace; mutual understanding and integration; and the joint creation of cultural identities. Nowadays, new emerging needs within the language industry demand plurilingual professionals, while increasing people flows demand intercultural strategies that allow communicative success in a globalised world. In this respect, de Angelis (2008) notes that "among the reasons for the growth of interest in multilingualism and multilingual education are the understanding of the importance of language learning for business and communication, and the awareness of the value of minority languages for a healthy and balanced society. Government and educational institutions are in general becoming more supportive of multilingualism, and the knowledge of foreign languages is increasingly being recognised as an asset for individuals" (p. 138).

According to the 2007 MLA report "Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World" (quoted in Kramsch, 2008, p. 390), "the goal [of college and university foreign language majors] is translingual and transcultural competence. The idea of translingual and transcultural competence places value on the multilingual ability to operate between languages." However, overt training in multilingual and intercultural skills is still rare in language-related degrees. Admittedly, engagement with otherness in the contemporary world is simultaneous to classroom learning, and therefore the dichotomy of 'classroom' and 'real world' is a false one (Byram, 1997, p. 65). However, for students to attain translingual communicative competence, an urgent diversification of language-related tasks to overtly address the linguistic and cultural constraints in the interpretation of information in multilingual and intercultural settings is a must. The impact of the interpretation of information in communication, or "savoir interprétatif", as Zarate (quoted in Kramsch, 1998, p. 29) puts it, is well-known in the literature: "the defining criterion of communication is interpretation; only when there has been interpretation has there been communication" (Kress, 2010, p. 85); "Contrary to what we might initially think, certainly contrary to what we teach students from grammar textbooks, 'interpretability is at the core of communication and is more important than the mere intelligibility or comprensibility'" (Smith, 1998, p. 274, quoted in Kachru & Nelson, 2001, p. 22); "In order to interpret the features which are actually present in a text, it is generally necessary to take account of what other choices might have been made" (Fairclough, 1989, p. 110).

Current teaching practices, however, tend to lack awareness of translingualism as a distinct communicative competence centred on the interpretation of messages, and fail to focus on a wide range of language-related activities (editing to and from different languages, formats and environments; localisation; verbal and non-verbal mediation, and the like) that take place on a daily basis in the global marketplace. One of the MULTICOM tasks, "re-translation", is proposed as a token of how to bridge the gap between the monolingual focus of foreign language classrooms and translingualism communicative competence, and one which shows that a significant departure from traditional approaches may come just from rethinking the purpose of teaching and learning materials.

A "re-translation" task is simple enough: a student reads a document in language 1 and translates it into language 2. The translation is given to another student, who knows it is a translation from language 1 to 2. The second student must re-translate the document back into language 1. The original and the translations and compared to identify the information lost, gained or modified in the process. Students are asked to analyse the results of the experience focusing on the role of ambiguity and misunderstanding when transiting from one language to another, as well as on the factors that play a role in the re-translation process. As Bellos (2009) reminds, "one way or another, any utterance can be made to jump over any language barrier. What's interesting is what else takes place when something is reformulated, recontextualised, readjusted, glossed, explained, summarised, expanded or deleted while still remaining acceptable in the receiving culture as a statement of the "same thing" (p. 404).

In order to raise awareness of the challenges posed by switching between languages, students may be asked to identify (i) the differences between the original and the translation; (ii) the differences between the translation and the re-translation; (iii) the differences between the original and the re-translation; (iv) the reason for those differences; (v) the information that has been altered in the process, and the reasons for such changes; (vi) the decisions students made while re-translating because they knew they were re-translating from whatever language; (vii) any amendments in the re-translation that brings it closer to the original than the translation; and (viii) which of the amendments are the result of knowing the language in which the original was written. The task may conclude with a reflection on serial transmission effects and the role of context in misunderstandings. Kachru & Nelson (2001) stress the role of contextual constraints as follows: "one must be familiar with the context in which the utterances are produced – not merely the immediate conversational context but the broader sociocultural context underlying it. It is not reasonable to think that … any … pluricentric language can in itself have such force as to establish identical situational interpretations across cultural boundaries" (p. 20).

Among the techniques most commonly associated with the promotion of language awareness (LA) in the classroom, Svalberg (2007) cites "languaging" about language, which not only enables students to learn foreign languages, but also to learn about language itself – a metalinguistic knowledge without which translingual communicative competence cannot be achieved; open-ended discussion tasks, which promote student interaction; and text reconstruction tasks, which encourage learners to arrive at and justify their own solutions, hence fostering student autonomy (p. 291f). All of them are present in a "re-translation" task, which also meets the LA requirement of simulating engagement with the language in a specific context. It is therefore a task that departs from traditional classroom practices without demanding strenuous effort from the language teacher, and one which brings translingualism to the fore while promoting language awareness among students. Language awareness, defined as explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use (Association of Language Awareness, http://www.languageawareness.org, quoted in Svalberg 2007, p. 288) is much needed in educational contexts, for as Roberts (2007) reminds, "the capacity to reflect consciously on language and to develop a metapragmatic awareness is not a regular part of people's analytic repertoire" (p. 413). The good news from the MULTICOM project is that very simple tasks can enhance awareness. Just telling a student: "if you do not know how to answer to me in language 1, say it aloud in language 2 to a classmate: s/he will pour it into language 1 and tell me" may be enough to make students reflect upon the translingual process "on the spot."

III. RETHINKING TRANSLINGUALISM WITH A FOCUS ON MULTILINGUAL SETTINGS

While devising the MULTICOM tasks, a number of problems emerged which evidenced the need to further profile the notion of translingualism. While communicative competence has been successfully addressed with the definition of the CEF "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages" (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre_en.asp) and intercultural communicative competence has also been exhaustively investigated (http://www.incaproject.org/; Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009; Kotthoff & Spencer-Oatey, 2007; Martin, 2007; Gudykunst & Mody, 2002), the notion of translingualism (and hence that of translingualism communicative competence) remains problematic. As Kramsch et al. (2008) highlight, "linguistic and cultural pluralism is more than the mere coexistence of various languages. It is primarily about the transcultural circulation of values across borders, the negotiation of identities, the inversions, even inventions of meaning, often concealed by a common illusion of effective communication …. The teacher trainers of tomorrow will need to operate in a globalised space where verbal exchanges will be increasingly plurilingual and pluricultural" (p. 15).

At one point, "gathering information in at least two languages and then communicating it through the medium of another language" emerged as a working definition of translingualism which, in turn, evidenced the need to address the concept of "multilingual setting", since understanding translingualism cannot be severed from the actual situations in which is it likely to occur. These are not only theoretical questions: they are bound to have an impact on actual teaching practices too. Traditionally, language degrees have aimed at turning students into near-native speakers of the foreign language, unsuccessfully in the main since few students of foreign languages go on to attain linguistic proficiency (Johnson & Nelson, 2010, p. 35). To complicate things further, multilingual settings are scenarios in which communication is mediated by a language which is not the L1 of most/some/any of the participants, and so being a native speaker with full linguistic competence in the language chosen for the multilingual exchange may be an obstacle for communication rather than an advantage. It is a well-known fact that non-native speakers often understand other non-native speakers better than native ones, and therefore, a system with a monolingual focus on the native speaker is not likely to render communicative success in the translingualism and transcultural settings in which students are increasingly likely to get engaged. Kramsch (1998) stresses the point as follows: "if . . . 'the basis of culture is not shared knowledge, but shared rules of interpretation', it would make more sense to view speakers acquiring over their lifetime a whole range of rules of interpretation that they use knowingly and judiciously according to the various social contexts in which they live and with which they make sense of the world around them. That, one could argue, is the characteristic of a 'competent language user': . . . the adaptability to select those forms of accuracy and those forms of appropriateness that are called for in a given social context of use. This form of competence is precisely the competence of the 'intercultural' speaker, operating at the border between several languages or language varieties, manoeuvring

his/her way through the troubled waters of cross-cultural misunderstandings. That, not the untroubled mythical native speaker, then, should be our model" (p. 27).

At the same time, it should not be forgotten that, in multilingual settings, participants make strategic adjustments in order to enhance communication with speakers from various backgrounds, i.e., resourcing to the knowledge of a given language to understand another one, as shown by the EuroCom network project (http://www.eurocom.uni-frankfurt.de/english/compact/kurs/text_seite_1468.htm), or deploying strategies such as the occasional switch from one language to another or pidginisation. The CEF (2001) provides a number of insights into the dynamics of translingual exchanges: "the plurilingual approach . . . does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. In different situations, a person can call flexibly upon different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor. For instance, partners may switch from one language or dialect to another, exploiting the ability of each to express in one language and to understand the other; or a person may call upon the knowledge of a number of languages to make sense of a text, written or even spoken, in a previously 'unknown' language, recognising words from a common international store in a new guise. Those with some knowledge, even slight, may use it to help those with none to communicate by mediating between individuals with no common language. In the absence of a mediator, such individuals may nevertheless achieve some degree of communication by bringing the whole of their linguistic equipment into play, experimenting with alternative forms of expression in different languages or dialects, exploiting paralinguistics (mime, gesture, facial expression, etc.) and radically simplifying their use of language" (p. 4).

In multilingual scenarios, mastering the language for the exchange is not as relevant as achieving effective communication by means of strategies that go beyond communicative competence in any given language. A number of differences have been tentatively described between monolinguals and multilinguals (Cenoz, 2000): the latter display a preference for mnemonic strategies for memory tasks, of linguistic strategies for rule-discovery ones, a disposition to modify strategies in language learning, a superiority in the use of implicit learning strategies and an increased motivation for learning an additional language (p. 49). However, the actual strategies deployed in multilingual settings are still underexplored, as these have tended to be neglected within the study of multilingual individuals and societies. As Roberts (2007) puts it, the multilingual workplace (which, just as the multilingual classroom, is a paradigmatic translingual setting of increasing pervasiveness in our evermore globalised societies) "is a strategic but underresearched site for exploring multilingual language use and for examining the process of second language socialisation" (p. 414), even though "increased use of technologies, more multi-tasking, more flexible work practices, flattened structures and a more textualised workplace have created new language and literacy demands which affect even the manual worker" (Roberts, 2007, p. 406).

Translingualism, which at first sight seems an intuitive notion, soon proves to be a matter of degree rather than a sharply delineated phenomenon, and hence a slippery one, both at an individual and at a societal level. Such slipperiness is even more significant in multilingual settings, mostly if the notion of individual plurilingualism is severed from that of societal multilingualism, since multilingual settings are fuzzy scenarios which need not involve plurilingual individuals as such, but speakers of two languages (in one of which fluency will typically be compromised) who are confronted with a communicative challenge which may or may not be part of their daily experience. When individuals get together with other individuals with whom they only share fragments of language and culture, strategies that go beyond language proficiency have to be deployed, and it is these strategies that define multilingual settings. As a communicative competence, translingualism will therefore be an evolving one, departing from "semilingualism" (Coste et al., 2009) and always on the making.

Let us think of a lecture delivered in Spanish with consecutive translation in French. In the audience, a speaker of Portuguese and a speaker of German, both with a B1 competence in French and none of them speakers of Spanish. Arguably, the Portuguese speaker will be likely to understand the lecture significantly better than the German one, because Spanish, with no instruction, remains opaque for Germans, but not to the same extent for speakers of Portuguese, since both Spanish and Portuguese are Romance languages. The scenario is thought to encompass a multilingual experience for the Portuguese speaker, inasmuch as s/he is resourcing to an integration of competences and taking advantage of a L3 of which s/he is not a speaker, but which can be put into play in order to make sense of the communicative exchange. Multilingual settings, therefore, do not require near-native speakers of any given language, but efficient communicators able to make use of every resource available at hand, and well aware of the radical difference between communication and information.

In translingualism communicative processes, significant pieces of information are likely to be lost and/or altered, but communication may nonetheless remain successful as long as strategies to secure the exchange are brought into use. Information interpretation having been established as a focus question for translingualism, "what is interesting is not so much whether the non-native speakers . . . were 'right' or 'wrong' in reading [a text] . . . differently from educated native speakers, but, rather, how different sociocultural contexts elicited different readings" (Kramsch, 1998: 18). Besides, in a global context in which mediation often takes place by means of a lingua franca, multilingual scenarios will often involve communication in English among speakers of many different languages. This is therefore a setting in which none of the participants can adjust to any one language or culture, but to the common communicative arena. As

Ansaldo (2010) points out, "peculiar to multilingual linguistic ecologies . . . is a dynamic linguistic profile that periodically realigns itself according to the needs of the shifting ecology, [which] proves that any identification between the community and a single linguistic code would be not only simplistic but ultimately also temporary, as languages are constantly negotiated" (p. 619). Language competence therefore remains a necessary but not sufficient condition for success in such situations, and in order to understand the ways in which strategies emerge to bridge the gap, multilingual settings deserve further attention. This, according to Lüdi (2010) is happening already, even if slowly: "company managers are beginning to realise that their "gibberish Esperanto" . . . can be an asset for including employees across the world in an emotional way, for facilitating the construction of new knowledge, and for promoting creativity and innovation through improving cognitive diversity. Thus, strategies promoting linguistic diversity and the choice of English as corporate language coexist in the same companies … What are the implications of all these developments for European educational language policies? It seems plausible that, at least in some cases, monolingual individuals and companies operating on a monolingual basis face disadvantages in a global marketplace. If we accept the premise that the educational systems' mission is to prepare young people for the working world, one of the major challenges is to equip them with multilingual repertoires as a prerequisite for succeeding in a world characterised by growing mobility and a massive increase in multilingualism. On the one hand, this means learning and/or teaching other languages in addition to English. On the other, the stakeholders will have to revise their conception of multilingual competences and move away from 'additionist' views (a multilingual competence is not equal to several monolingual competences) towards the kind of repertoires which are partially shared and perceived by the participants as resources to be used according to the situation, i.e. in a 'situated way'. Thus, the main challenge for foreign language teachers is to coach learners in learning ONE particular language and allow them, at the same time, to conceive of all of their languages combined as a tool kit to be used in pluriglossic environments" (p. 495).

At a time in which mergers within in-house teams are becoming increasingly frequent and multilingual scenarios are no longer restricted to overseas encounters, the seven critical factors for success in international working environments (tolerance for ambiguity, behavioural flexibility, goal orientation, sociability and interest in other people, empathy, non-judgmentalness and meta-communication skills) are becoming more and more pervasive in everyday experience (Prechtl & Davidson Lund, 2008). Multilingual settings thus emerge, both home and abroad, as optimal pathfinders for understanding the multifaceted nature of translingualism, mostly when considering that in such scenarios, interpersonal communication "not only occurs between individuals but also via mass media and computer-mediated technologies and through international organisations" (Barnett & Lee, 2002). Although societal multilingualism and individual plurilingualism have been neatly distinguished in recent literature (Coste et al., 2009; Cavalli et al., 2009; Oliveira & Ançã 2009; Zarate et al., 2008; Beacco & Byram, 2007; Byram, 2007), and multilingualism remains an umbrella term (Mackiewicz, 2002), translingualism seems a more suitable term to describe the competences involved in multilingual settings, multifaceted scenarios of which mergers are an intrinsic feature.

The understanding of welcoming leaflets at a hotel provides an interesting token at this stage: everyone has experienced the frustration of having to read the information in various languages so as to be able to know how to operate the air conditioner. Likewise, everyone has at some point laughed when reading notices such as "Cooles and Heates: If you want just condition of warm in your room, please control yourself" or "The lift is being fixed for the next day. During that time we regret that you will be unbearable." Mistranslations need not come from amusing websites on the internet: they are part and parcel of everyone's experience. The interesting point is not the obvious lack of language proficiency in display, but rather what makes speakers understand those texts, for the mechanisms that grant understanding of mistranslations seems in tune with those that grant effective communication in translingual and transcultural settings. Mistranslations can surely be amended, but translation remains inadequate as an answer to communicative success in multilingual settings, even if sworn translations were readily available at any point, which is of course not the case, as depicted by Lambarena (2009): "the European Union has the largest translation and interpretation services in the world to serve the now 23 official languages (Welsh to become the 24th this year). This means 506 possible language combinations. In 2007, the 2,500 translators produced two million pages of text, and the 500 interpreters are supplemented by 300-400 freelance interpreters per day. The annual expenditure on translation and interpretation in the EU is a calculated at 1,1 billion euros every year until 2013".

As Bellos (2009) puts it, nothing as simple as a 'translation process' can be pinned down, for there are many other language-related tasks (summarising, rewriting, recontextualising, adapting and so forth) that cannot be formally distinguished from translation (p. 401). Likewise, nothing as simple as a translingual communicative process can be pinned down, since near-native proficiency in any given language does not warrant a successful exchange unless a strategic integration of competences, albeit partial, is brought about. In order to prevent cultural and linguistic misinterpretations that may prevent communicative success in a multilingual scenario, overt training in strategies such as managing anxiety when facing difficulties to express in an unfamiliar language or dealing with uncertainty and asymmetry in the communicative exchange, as well as much awareness training, becomes paramount within a translingual curricular programme. Before such a goal is fulfilled, however, much research is still to be done on the creation of meaning in multilingual settings. Singh's (2010) insights are inspiring: "natural laboratories called multilingual contexts furnish abundant evidence for the construction of the sort of theory those who claim that multilingualism is really the unmarked linguistic condition must work towards (p. 636). Such a theory will not only

show that the routine abridgement of our linguistic capacity presented as competence is unwarranted but also has . . . important implications for the construction of monolingual grammars . . . Only an attempt to construct a new theory of language form and architecture can do justice to the contribution multilingualism can potentially make to our understanding of language".

IV. STILL ON THE AGENDA

Rethinking the notion of translingualism and acknowledging the significance of diversification in language-related tasks in order to develop strategies for success in multilingual settings gave rise to another concern which exceeds the scope of the MULTICOM project and indeed of this paper: envisaging a translingual CEF to measure translingual communicative competence, which should integrate the linguistic ability to interact in contexts in which at least three languages are at play and intercultural communicative competence. Translingual communicative competence cannot be adequately learned and assessed as a distinct competence without such a framework, but there is still a lot to do on the translingual agenda so as to know what makes translingual communication different before it can be actually drawn.

The seven constitutive principles of textuality without which communication breaks down (cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality) and the three regulative principles that control textual communication (efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness) have been known for long (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 2002/1981). However, in multilingual settings a number of such principles are often missing and communication still occurs, which once again makes one wonder what makes translingual communication different, and how to measure the magnitudes so as to know how to enhance strategies that secure successful communication, minimising the difficulties faced in multilingual settings. According to Kramsch & Whiteside (2008), "social actors in multilingual settings seem to activate more than a communicative competence that would enable them to communicate accurately, effectively, and appropriately with one another. They seem to display a particularly acute ability to play with various linguistic codes and with the various spatial and temporal resonances of these codes. We call this competence "symbolic competence." Symbolic competence is the ability not only to approximate and appropriate for oneself someone else's language, but to shape the very context in which the language in learned and used … For language learners and educators, symbolic competence is not yet another skill that language users need to master, nor it is a mere component of communicative competence. Rather, it is a mindset that can create 'relationships of possibility', but only if the individual learns to see him/herself through his/her own embodied history and subjectivity and through the history and subjectivity of others" (p. 664f).

"Symbolic competence" goes beyond plurilingual and pluricultural competence, which the Council of Europe (2001) describes as a complex or even composite competence on which the user may draw by making use of proficiency of varying degrees in several languages and experience of several cultures (p. 168). The notion of symbolic competence comes from the ecology-of-language paradigm, nowadays gaining ground as a platform for the study of multilingualism almost half a century after it was first proposed by Einar Haugen for the study of multilingual societies. The paradigm "involves building on linguistic diversity worldwide, promoting multiculturalism and foreign language learning and granting linguistic human rights to speakers of all languages" (Phillipson & Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996, quoted in Gill, 2003, p. 70) and provides new insights into multilingual settings and plurilingualism together with methodological proposals. Within the ecological framework (Kramsch, 2008), language teaching is not conceived of as the teaching of linguistic codes, but as the teaching of meaning, which from an ecological point of view is thought to be relational and multidimensional, mediated, multiscalar and recursive, emergent, unpredictable and double-voiced, fractal, subjective, historically contingent and reflexive. Thus, as Gill (2003) puts it, "an ecological curriculum for teaching language does not restrict itself to the teaching of the language per se but is expanded to include the context and meta-context of language as a process. In a recursive framework, the very process becomes a meta-context for study. The introduction of frameworks for language awareness alongside the study of language is central to a movement in ESL teaching known as the ecology-of-language paradigm. Supporters of this movement believe that it is the responsibility of language teachers to increase language awareness and counter the overwhelming presence of dominant world languages, particularly where English, for example, is having the effect of eliminating or suppressing minority languages and cultures in the world" (p. 70).

In relating the creation of meaning with diversity, the ecology-of-language paradigm approaches translingual communicative competence by focusing on both multilingualism and intercultural competence as defined by the Council of Europe (2001), i.e., as the ability to bring the culture of origin and the foreign culture into relation with each other; as cultural sensitivity; as the ability to identify and use a variety of strategies for contact with those from other cultures; as the capacity to fulfil the role of cultural intermediary between one's own culture and the foreign culture and to deal effectively with intercultural misunderstanding and conflict situations; and as the ability to overcome stereotyped relationships (p. 104f). Kramsch (2008) reminds us of the breach between theory and practice: "most institutions are still teaching standard national languages according a 19th-century modern view of language as a structural system with rules of grammatical and lexical usage, and rules of pragmatics reified to fit the image of a stereotyped Other. The 21st century is all about meaning, relations, creativity, subjectivity, historicity and the trans– as in translingual and transcultural competence. We should conceive of what we do in ways that are more appropriate to the demands of a global, decentred, multilingual and multicultural world, more suited to our uncertain and unpredictable

times" (p. 406).

Translingual communicative competence, the one deployed in successful multilingual settings, stands out as a "personal competence" (Moran, 2001, p. 119) that ranks highest within the hierarchy of language and culture learning outcomes. Before we can actually teach, and test (Lenz & Berthele, 2010), translingual communicative competence, however, a number of questions need to be addressed: what makes speakers choose the language for the exchange in multilingual settings? How do we provide students with explicit modelling of strategies to succeed in multilingual settings? What are those strategies, how are they used, and what for? In a word, what, specifically, is encapsulated in multilingual settings? The answers, according to CEF (2001) are still not at hand: "from this perspective, the aim of language education is profoundly modified. It is no longer seen as simply to achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertoire, in which all linguistic abilities have a place . . . The full implications of such a paradigm shift have yet to be worked out and translated into action" (p. 5).

"The number of studies on the effect of individual and contextual factors in multilingual acquisition is very limited" (Cenoz 2000, p. 49); as a result, most questions remain largely unanswered. The cognitive effects of being multilingual, which include "an enhanced metalinguistic awareness and an enhanced multilingual capacity to monitor, and [which] positively affect divergent and creative thinking, pragmatic competence, communicative sensitivity and translation skills" (Jessner, 2006, quoted in Svalberg, 2007, p. 300), still need research, just as the constraints of multilingual settings do. At the same time, awareness training stands out as an educational challenge so as to prevent that emotional and identitary factors make for a resistance to multilingualism and pluriculturalism. Defensiveness, different world views, different values and beliefs, prejudices, different languages, different ways of using and interpreting the non-verbal code, different ways of constructing messages, unequal power, and the failure to allow for individual cultural differences within a group have been mentioned as recurring barriers to effective intercultural communication of which students need to become aware to realise how their culture may be shaping their own reactions (Singh & Rampersad, 2010, p. 3) and how such reactions affect the communicative success. Hornberger (2009) pictures a prospect for progress: "now, as throughout history, multilingual education offers the best possibilities for preparing coming generations to participate in constructing more just and democratic societies in our globalised and intercultural world; however, it is not unproblematically achieved. Multilingual education is, at its best, (1) multilingual in that it uses and values more than one language in teaching and learning, (2) intercultural in that it recognises and values understanding and dialogue across different lived experiences and cultural worldviews, and (3) education that draws out, taking as its starting point the knowledge students bring to the classroom and moving toward their participation as full and indispensable actors in society – locally, nationally, and globally. Beyond these fundamental characteristics, there are many unanswered questions and doubts surrounding multilingual education as to policy and implementation, program and curricular design, classroom instruction practices, pedagogy, and teacher professional development, but there is also much that we understand and know very well, based on empirical research in many corners of the world" (p. 198).

Far too often, languages are still viewed as problems rather than as resources. By means of applying recent findings in the literature on multi and plurilingualism to language instruction, such as the introduction of the notion of "partial competence" as an evolving tool to handle imbalance (Coste at el., 2009, p. 18), overcoming such a prejudice does not seem out of reach. When tested in class, the MULTICOM tasks elicited enthusiastic responses from students, who sometimes for the first time became aware of the interpretative process involved in communication and of the relevance of factors other than foreign language proficiency in successful translingual interaction. The prospects for change seem promising as long as applied linguistics is actually applied.

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Clara Molina earned her PhD in linguistics in 2000 from the Universidad Complutense de Madrid (Spain), after conducting funded research at the University of California at Berkeley (USA), Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (Belgium) and Stanford University (USA). She is currently a lecturer in English language and linguistics at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (Spain), where she coordinates a BA degree in multilingual communication (Lenguas Modernas, Cultura y Comunicación), after holding a position as Vice Dean for quality assurance in higher education and enhanced teaching and learning methodology. Her research interests fall under the language-culture-cognition umbrella and has published on multilingualism, language variation and change, lexical semantics and grammaticalization. Dr. Molina is currently conducting research on blended learning and multilingualism. She can be reached at clara.molina@uam.es

Learning Vocabulary via Mobile Phone: Persian EFL Learners in Focus

Saeed Taki
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran
Email: taki@iaush.ac.ir

Saeed Khazaei
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran
Email: saeed.khazaei@gmail.com

Abstract—With encompassing power of cell phones and potentials of mobile learning for language teaching/learning, employing cell phones in language learning seems indispensable. Through exploiting the inherent capabilities of such devices this study investigated the efficacy of multimodal representation of L2 vocabularies for 158 pre-intermediate level L2 learners aged 18-23. Since short-term memory plays an important role in vocabulary learning, they were placed into four different short-term memory (STM) ability groups using visual and verbal STM Tests. Also, cell phone-based vocabulary presentations with different annotations, i.e. pictorial vs. written, were adapted to the cell phone screen to render on learners' cell phones via Bluetooth. Finally, the participants took English vocabulary recognition and recall tests. The statistical analysis of the results showed that presenting learning materials with pictorial or written annotations rather than without annotations to learners with high-visual and high-verbal abilities resulted in better learning. Also, presenting learning materials with pictorial annotation to learners with high-visual ability as well as presenting the materials with written annotation to learners with high-verbal ability resulted in better learning. Low-visual and low-verbal ability groups showed better results under no annotation condition. The findings can provide an appropriate model for designing learning materials for L2 learners.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning, multimedia learning, mobile learning, learning and technology

I. Introduction

Among all mobile devices such as mobile phones, Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs), or smart phones mobile phones are probably the most popular and widely used all over the world (Cui & Wang, 2008). The United Nations (2010) reported that some 4.6 billion people are now mobile phone subscribers, indicating that 67 percent of all the people in the world are affected. Now, mobile phone has not only become an entertainment device (featuring functions such as camera, FM, and MP3 players) but also allows users to access, through the Internet, Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) functions and have video conferences using the state-of-the-art 3G (third generation of mobile phones) network ("Phonehistory," 2009).

Due to these rapid advances in mobile phone technology, it seems that in future mobile phones would replace computers. Consequently, many researchers have started to believe that mobile phones are not only able to support formal and informal learning but also to complete the process of learning via computers.

Since learning English is very popular in non-English speaking countries, developing modern learning tools that support effective English learning is a critical issue in English-language education (Chen & Chung, 2008). However, advances in the application of mobile technology in language learning and teaching necessarily involve, in the early phases, a challenging process of trial and error, as teachers seek to incorporate new technologies into their students' already complex language-learning lives (Conacher, 2009). According to Bull and Kukulska-Hulme (2009), there is a large body of research on second language learning, but often much of the relevant theory and empirical findings are overlooked by developers of language learning technology support.

Chen, Hsieh, and Kinshuk (2008) quoting Alavi and Leidner (2001) reported that a majority of previous studies have mainly relied on the stimulus-response theory, which probes only the relationship between information technologies (stimulus) and learning outcome (response); future studies should also take the learner's characteristics into consideration in assessing the learning outcome of technology-mediated learning. They also pointed out that the psychological learning process (PLP) of learners is an important mediator that cannot be neglected.

II. Background

A. Theoretical Framework

Information is cognitively processed through visual or verbal channels (Jones, 2004; Mayer, 1979, 2005; Paivio, 1986). The basic architecture of information processing model is the multi-store model (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968)

which consists of three types of memory: Sensory, Short-Term (STM), and Long-Term (LTM). There are studies about the relation between vocabulary acquisition and verbal short-term memory (Greffe, Linden, Majerus, & Poncelet, 2005; Gupta & Mac Whinney, 1977).

Working memory is a more contemporary term for short-term memory which conceptualizes memory not as a passive system for temporary storage but as an active system for temporarily storing and manipulating information needed in the execution of complex cognitive tasks like learning, reasoning, and comprehension (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).Working memory is heavily involved in language learning (Ellis, 1996). In addition, according to Numminen (2002), working memory is an especially significant memory area for learning to read.

Also, in second or foreign language learning, different learners may prefer different solutions to learning problems. For example, some may want explanations for grammatical rules others may not need explanations. Some may feel that writing down words or sentences helps to remember them. Others may find that they remember things better if they are associated with pictures. These are called differences in cognitive style (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Generally speaking, in EFL contexts where the target language is not the medium of communication in the society, technology can function as a facilitator in the process of language learning (Rashtchi & Hajihassni, 2010).

In designing learning materials for mobile phones, the application of multimedia seems useful through which not only could different types of learning materials in the form of annotations be presented to learners with different cognitive styles but also the limitation on the screen size of mobile phones could be solved to some extent.

Research on second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition has revealed that words associated with actual objects or imagery techniques are learned more easily than those without. With multimedia application, it is possible to provide, in addition to the traditional definitions of words, different types of information, such as pictures and videos (Chun & Plass, 1996). The presence of both pictorial and written cues can facilitate learning, in particular when the corresponding visual and verbal representations are contiguously present in the working memory (Mayer, 2003). According to Jones (2004), researchers have long been interested in examining the effects of pictorial and verbal cues on L2 vocabulary learning, and have found that processing supportive information such as pictures or translations enhances language learning.

It seems suitable to take into consideration theories such as cognitive theory of multimedia and cognitive load theory in applying multimedia in designing learning materials. The case for multimedia is based on the fact that instruction messages should be designed in the light of how human mind works (Mayer, 2005). According to the cognitive theory of multimedia learning which examines how people process separate channels for processing verbal and visual material (dual-channels assumption), each channel can process only a small amount of material at a time (limited capacity assumption), and meaning learning involves engaging in appropriate cognitive processing.
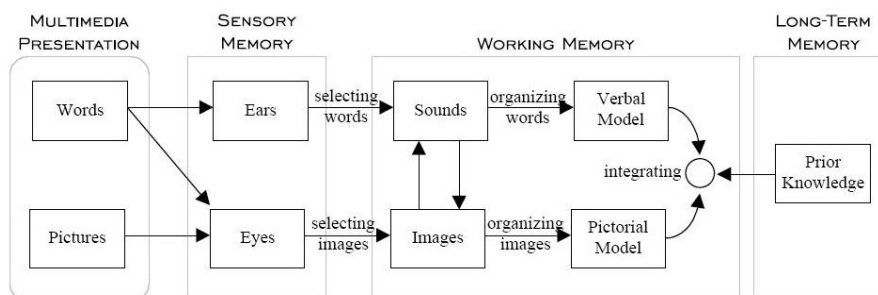
Figure 1. Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia model (Mayer, 2005, p. 54)

Thus, in this study an attempt was made to design a system in which not only could people learn English anytime and anywhere, but also the learning materials could be presented according to their needs and their PLPs.

B. Research Questions

This research aimed at investigating the effects of mobile-based presentation of vocabulary definitions, supported with annotations, on the EFL pre-intermediate learners' vocabulary learning. More specifically, the following questions were addressed:

1) Is there any difference in learning between presenting learning materials with annotation (i.e. pictorial vs. written) and those without for learners with high-visual and high-verbal abilities?

2) Is there any difference in learning between presenting learning materials with pictorial annotation and those without for learners with high-visual but low-verbal abilities?

3) Is there any difference in learning between presenting learning materials with annotation and those without annotation for learners with both low-visual and low-verbal abilities?

4) Is there any difference in learning between presenting learning materials with written annotation and those without for learners with low-visual ability but high-verbal ability?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were selected from among those enrolled in EFL classes in an Iranian English institute (N=158). They were selected from 12 classes at the same level of language proficiency (i.e. pre-intermediate level). Their age range was between 19 and 23 years. Each learner had a different STM ability for processing different LCR (Learning Content Representation) types; that is, LCR with or without pictorial or written annotations. Thus, STM was considered as a criterion to divide learners into four groups:

Group 1 (G1): learners with higher visual and verbal abilities
Group 2 (G2): learners with higher visual but lower verbal abilities
Group 3 (G3): learners with both lower visual and lower verbal abilities
Group 4 (G4): learners with lower visual but higher verbal abilities
The characteristics of the four groups are represented in Figure 2.
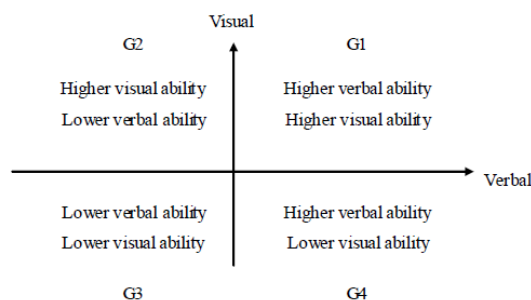
Figure 2. Grouping learners in terms of their visual and verbal abilities

B. Materials

The materials used in this study are a) a language proficiency test, b) a vocabulary level test, c) a background questionnaire, d) software package, e) visual and verbal STM tests, and f) recognition and recall tests.

Proficiency test: to make sure that the participants were at the same language proficiency level, they were given the Nelson English Language test.

Vocabulary level test**:** since there should be a clear and sensible goal for vocabulary learning (Nation & Waring, 1997), a vocabulary level test of 50 items was prepared, using frequency method. In fact, frequency items information provides a rational basis for making sure that learners get the best return for their vocabulary learning effort (Nation & Waring, 1997). The test was administered to assess the learners' original knowledge of words and to prevent the inclusion of words which learners became familiar with in the learning phase of the experiment. The word items for the vocabulary test were selected from Bauman's General Service List (GSL), which consists of 2284 words. One word from every 40 words was selected, starting from the 40th word (40 2203 'more') to the 2000th word (15 2000 'scenery').The Bauman's GSL is based on the Brown's corpus which contains 1000,000 words. Beside every word there are two numbers: the first one indicates the order of the word item in the list which is based on the frequency of the word in Brown's corpus and the other number indicates the frequency of occurrence of the word in Brown's corpus. Since *New Interchange* series was taught in that language institute, the vocabulary lists at the end of those books were checked to avoid using words which the learners had already learned. When learners completed the vocabulary level test, it became clear that nearly all the learners were familiar with words up to the word 'absolute' (1280 62 'absolute'). Therefore, 18 words for the third phase of learning were selected from 1500th 'wisdom' (1500 44 'wisdom') onward. For each word item, the following three types of representation were prepared:

Type 1 represents the English word, pronunciation, part of speech, and the Persian meaning of the word.
Type 2 represents the materials shown in type 1 plus the written annotation (i.e. the example sentence of the item).
Type 3 represents the materials shown in type 1 plus the pictorial annotation.
Examples of three different representation types, for the word 'dig' are shown in Figure 3.
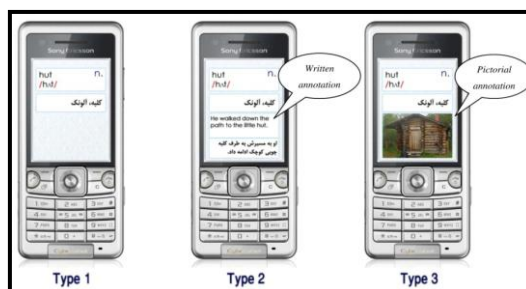
Figure 3. Different types of representation

Background questionnaire: an open-ended questionnaire was prepared to make it possible for learners to express their thoughts and ideas without limitation as related to using mobile phones and whether they were interested in participating in the study.

Software: it was designed to conduct the main phases of the study. The installation, its different parts, and how to use it were all described.

Visual and verbal STM tests: 40 questions were prepared to test the learners' visual and verbal ability; that is, 20 questions were prepared for testing the visual ability and 20 questions for testing the verbal ability. The STM tests were prepared based on the model proposed by Chen and Chen (2005). As they have reported, personalized service is important on the Internet, especially in web-based learning. Generally, most personalized systems consider learners' preferences, interests, and browsing behaviors in providing personalized services. However, learners' ability is usually neglected as an important factor in implementing personalization mechanisms. So, they proposed a personalized e-learning system based on Item Response Theory (PEL-IRT), which considers both course material difficulty and learner ability to provide individual learning paths for learners.

Figure 4. illustrates the proposed system architecture, which can be divided into two main parts according to system operation procedures, that is, front-end and back-end parts. The front-end part manages communication with learners and records the learner's behavior. Meanwhile, the back-end part aims to analyze learner ability and select appropriate course materials for learners based on the estimated learner ability.
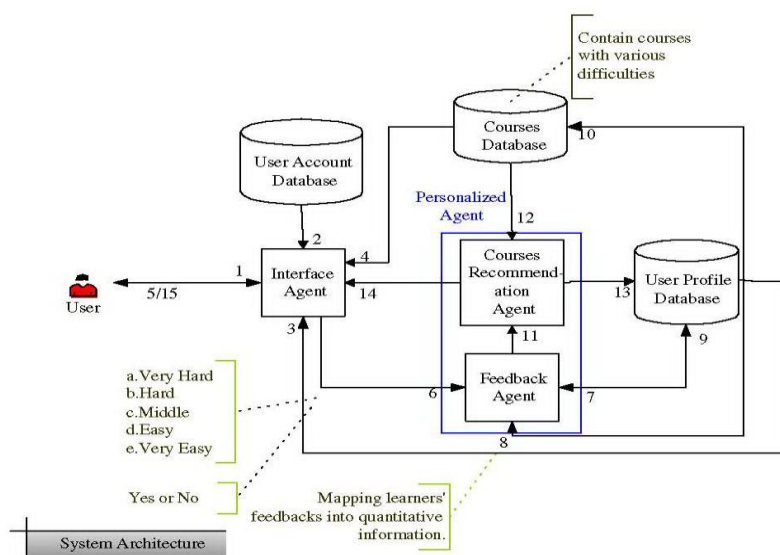
Figure 4. System architecture (Numbers 1; 2; . . . ; 15 indicate the procedure of system operation) (Chen & Chen, 2005, p. 3)

English vocabulary recognition and recall (EVRR) tests: these tests are often used to examine learners' vocabulary knowledge (Jones, 2004). 18 recognition questions and 18 recall questions were prepared for testing the learners' vocabulary learning. Although the framework for making recognition and recall tests was like the one extracted from the study done by Chen, Hsieh, and Kinshuk (2008), their reliability was calculated through Cronbach's alpha and it was found to be 0.81.

C. Procedure

The study took place in the language laboratory of the institute in four phases:

Phase I: Introduction. In this phase, all the details and objectives of the experiment were explained. Then, the background questionnaire was distributed among the learners to complete.

Phase II: STM ability test. Each learner was provided with a computer for STM test. First, they took part in a visual STM ability test and then a verbal STM test. Each question in these two tests (i.e. verbal and visual) comprised two subparts. Regarding the visual section of the test initially a picture was displayed for 08.00 seconds; then, a question was asked about the picture. The learners were given 06.00 seconds to answer the question. Concerning the verbal test, first a sentence was displayed for 08.00 seconds, then a question addressing the sentence was asked; the learners had to answer in 06.00 seconds. Afterwards, each learner's answers were recorded and the learners were assigned two types of score (i.e. raw score and standard score with a mean of 0.000 and a standard deviation of 01.00). On the basis of their z scores of visual and verbal STM abilities, the participants were divided into four groups: 55 in group1 (G1), 28 in group 2 (G2), 48 in group 3 (G3), and 27 in group 4 (G4).

Phase III: Learning new vocabulary items. In this phase each participant was assigned a mobile phone to learn 18 new English vocabulary items. All items were sent to their mobile phones via Bluetooth. Each item was presented to the

learners for about 120 seconds. Since the learners were not able to exit the program from the time they opened the target files until they ended the program, the researcher had full control over all the mobile phones.

In order to counterbalance the effect of the order of presentation, a 3×3 Latin Square (LS) design was employed. According to Montgomery (1991), one of the frequent uses of LS is to counterbalance the various sequences in which an independent variable might take place. In LS, each of the 3 digits (i.e. 1, 2, 3) would appear just once in each row and column. Figure 5 shows a 3×3 Latin Square.

Figure 5.The 3×3 Latin square

In this research the first six words were presented to the first participant in type1, then 6 words in type 2, and finally 6 words in type 3. At the same time, the second participant received the first 6 words in type 2, then 6 words in type 3, and the last six words in type 1.

Phase IV: Testing phase. After the third phase (i.e. learning phase) the learners took EVRR tests. First, they took recognition tests which consisted of 18 multiple-choice questions and then they took the recall tests which consisted of 18 questions, too. The frameworks for making recognition and recall questions were the ones adopted from the study done by Chen et al. (2008).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Concerning question 1, the recognition scores for type 2 and type 3 learning materials obtained by learners placed in G1 were not higher than those for type 1 learning materials. As Table 1 displays, the recall scores for type 2 and type 3 learning materials were higher than those for type 1 learning materials for learners in G1(p=0.000). Also, the average score for type 2 and type 3 learning materials was higher than that for type 1 learning materials (p=0.002).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: RECOGNITION SCORES, RECALL SCORES, AND AVERAGE SCORES OF GROUP 1

Group	Number of subjects	Age	Type	Recognition Score		Recall Score		Average Score	
				Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error
Group 1	55	21.5	1	2.2	0.145	1.02	0.120	1.6091	0.10355
			2	3.31	0.147	2.02	0.120	2.6636	0.09971
			3	3.73	0.123	2.4	0.177	3.0636	0.12313

As for question 2, the recognition scores for type 3 learning materials obtained from the participants in G2, shown in Table 2, were higher than those for type 1 (p=0.000). Recall scores for type 3 learning materials were higher than those for type 1 learning materials for the learners in G2 (p=0.000). Also, the average score for type 3 learning material was higher than that for type 1 learning materials for learners in G2 (p=0.000).

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: RECOGNITION SCORES, RECALL SCORES, AND AVERAGE SCORES OF GROUP 2

Group	Number of subjects	Age	Type	Recognition Score		Recall Score		Average Score	
				Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error
Group 2	28	21.53	1	1.82	0.193	1	0.154	1.4107	0.14785
			2	1.68	0.163	0.79	0.166	1.2321	0.14430
			3	3.82	0.200	3.04	0.174	3.4286	0.16808

As far as question 3 is concerned, the recognition scores for type 1 learning materials, as shown in Table 3, were significantly better than those for type 2 or type 3 learning materials for learners in G3(p=0.000). Recall scores for type 1 learning materials were not better than those for types 2 or 3 learning materials for the learners placed in G3. Also, the average score for type 1 learning material was better than those for type 2 or type 3 learning materials for the learners placed in G3 (p=0.000).

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: RECOGNITION SCORES, RECALL SCORES, AND AVERAGE SCORES OF GROUP 3

Group	Number of subjects	Age	Type	Recognition Score		Recall Score		Average Score	
				Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error
Group 3	48	21.22	1	3.83	0.134	2.79	0.157	3.3125	0.12599
			2	1.92	0.118	0.98	0.117	1.4479	0.10123
			3	1.9	0.153	0.79	0.126	1.3438	0.11924

As for question 4, as Table 4 represents, the recognition scores for type 2 learning materials obtained by the learners placed in G4 were higher than those for type 1 (p=0.000). Recall scores for type 2 learning materials were higher than those for type 1 learning materials for the learners in G4 (p=0.000). Also, the average score for type 2 learning materials was higher than that for type 1 learning materials (0.000).

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: RECOGNITION SCORES, RECALL SCORES, AND AVERAGE SCORES OF GROUP 4

Group	Number of subjects	Age	Type	Recognition Score		Recall Score		Average Score	
				Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error
Group 4	27	21.18	1	2.22	0.147	1	0.169	1.6111	0.12892
			2	4.33	0.141	3.44	0.222	3.8889	0.17158
			3	2.41	0.134	1.15	0.183	1.7778	0.12327

Since the recall test is a test of productive knowledge and the recognition test is a test of receptive knowledge, receptive recognition is somewhat easier than productive recall (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The case for the results of this study is in line with this observation. In other words, the learners' recognition scores were higher than the recall ones. These results could, to some extent, be attributed to the role of learners' visual and verbal abilities.

The results of Tables 1, 2, and 4 are in line with the dual coding theory (DCT) in that the addition of written or pictorial annotations could help in facilitating learning. Also, the answer to the third question supports the idea that presenting the learning materials with annotation could inhibit more rather than it may facilitate the learning process (i.e. cognitive load theory).

According to the dual-coding theory, learning is more effective when learners use more than one sensory modality, for instance, verbal and visual processing together and when connections are clearly made between information in each modality (Mayer, 2003). The results of the study are in line with DCT theory, however, this was not the case for the learners with both low-visual and low-verbal abilities. In other words, although according to Tabbers, Martens, and Merrienboer (2004) strategies such as physically integrating text and picture and replacing written or on-screen text with spoken texts reduce the extraneous load of multimedia instructions and thus increase the effectiveness of the learning process, the results of this study are not in line with such theories since L2 learners with low visual and low verbal abilities in this study did not perform well on the recognition and recall tests of the materials when presented with pictorial and written annotations.

Also, the results of the study support the results reported by Chen et al. (2008), in which it was demonstrated that the learners with high-verbal and high-visual ability learned the materials with pictorial or written annotations better. On the other hand, the learners with both low-visual and low-verbal abilities do not benefit much from learning materials with pictorial or written annotation. According to this study, although the learners with good visual ability but low verbal ability perform well on recognition tests, they do not perform well on recall tests. Likewise, the same result is true for the learners with high verbal but low visual ability and learning materials with written annotation.

V. Conclusion

Based on the results of the study the following points can be made:
• Learners with both high-visual and high-verbal ability, learn the learning materials with written or pictorial annotation better than the learning materials without annotation. Although this is true for the recall test, it is not the case for the recognition test.
• Presenting the learning materials with pictorial annotation to learners with high-visual but low-verbal ability results in better vocabulary learning.
• Presenting the learning materials without annotation to learners with both low-visual and low-verbal abilities results in better vocabulary learning than presenting the types with pictorial or written annotation. Although this is true for recognition tests in recall tests, they cannot be justified for the recall tests.
• Learners with low-visual ability but high-verbal ability learn the learning materials with written annotation better than those without annotation.

Regarding the potential of mobile phones in the realm of teaching and language learning, it seems necessary to go beyond and apply them in teaching and learning other skills and sub-skills.

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Saeed Taki is currently an EFL teacher in the English Department, at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, IRAN. He holds a PhD in TEFL and his main areas of interest include cultural studies and (critical) discourse analysis, and foreign language teaching methodology.

Saeed Khazaei is an M.A. graduate in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. He did his M.A. in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, IRAN. He is seriously involved in developing learning materials using modern technology.

An Investigation of Personality and L2 Oral Performance

Zhengdong Gan
The Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong
Email: zdgan@ied.edu.hk

Abstract—This study investigates one dimension of personality, extroversion-introversion, and examines its potential impact on learner L2 oral performance. The study is innovative in that it analyzes not only the correlation between degree of extroversion and assessment scores based on analytic scoring but also the correlation between degree of extroversion and the discourse measures of accuracy, fluency and complexity commonly used as indices of L2 task performance in the L2 research. The data for this study were drawn from oral performances by 39 Cantonese-mother-tongue Form 4 (that is, Grade 9) secondary school ESL students engaging in school-based oral English assessment that has recently been implemented across secondary schools in Hong Kong. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire was used to measure the students' degree of extroversion. The findings indicate no significant correlations between degree of extroversion and students' assessment scores, and between degree of extroversion and those discourse-based measures. In addition, further in-depth analysis of the discourse and interactional behavior of two students classified as an extrovert and an introvert based on their scores on the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, suggests that in the context of group oral discussion described in this study, extroversion/introversion might impact in some way on learner discourse and interactional behavior only in the extreme cases, yet this influence seemed not reflected in the assessment scores assigned.

Index Terms—L2 task performance, conversation analysis, extroversion-introversion, speaking assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Group oral tasks in which three or more second language learners are required to talk to each other about a topic without any prompting from or interaction with interlocutors commonly occur in second language (L2) classrooms and L2 assessment situations. Interest in group oral tasks can be attributed to such factors as the potential to yield authentic discourse resulting from approximating real world communication (Ockey, 2009), the alignment of task-based assessment with task-based instruction, and the limitations of discrete-skills assessments (Mislevy, Steinberg, and Almond, 2002). Spence-Brown (2001) emphasizes that authenticity of engagement in interaction clearly has implications for the validity of a task for learning, as well as its validity for assessment. Bachman and Palmer (1996) also remind us that authenticity, interactiveness and impact are three qualities that many measurement specialists consider to be part of validity. Researchers and practitioners in L2 pedagogy and L2 testing and assessment thus generally agree that learner group oral task, compared with monologic narrative tasks or traditional one-to-one interviews, may more authentically reflect students' interactional skills and their moment-by-moment construction of individual and linguistic identity, and more faithfully mirror daily L2 classroom interactions.

In recent years, there have also been a few research studies on the nature of interactional discourse produced in paired or group oral tasks. Nakatsuhara (2006) investigated the impact of paired interlocutor proficiency-levels on the nature and quantity of paired testing performance. She observed a similar degree of asymmetric interactional conversational styles both in same-proficiency-level pairs and different-proficiency-level pairs. Iwashita (1996) also found that proficiency level of the paired candidates could affect the discourse produced but not the scores assigned. Viewing oral performance from what he refers to as a sociocognitive perspective, O'Sullivan (2002) examined 32 Japanese learners who were required to perform three different tasks once with a friend and once with a stranger. His findings showed that familiarity with one's partner tends to affect pair-work language performance, although his analysis did not show any effect on the linguistic complexity of the discourse produced. In light of these findings, he called for urgent and extensive study of pair/group oral work that employs tasks requiring interaction between individuals. Dimitrova-Galaczi (2004) conducted an interesting study on the interactional features observed in the First Certificate of English (FCE) speaking test. Her analysis of the discourse of the 30 dyads revealed four distinct patterns of interaction which she labeled as "collaborative," "parallel," "asymmetric", and "blended". The collaborative pattern was characterized by some dyad members working in a collaborative manner and sustaining topics over longer stretches of discourse; the parallel pattern was characterized by dyad members having equal access to the conversational floor and development of the task but not working together; the asymmetric pattern was characterized by one assuming an interactionally more dominant role and the other a more passive role; the blended pattern was characterized by some dyads exhibiting interactional features of several interactional patterns such as collaborative and parallel.

In spite of the empirical studies of discourse and interaction in oral assessment context as reviewed above, it is

suggested that more research work needs to be carried out on learner group oral work to inform the L2 pedagogy field's understanding of the factors that may affect learner linguistic performances (Swain, 2001). In particular, Ockey (2009) mentioned that relatively much less attention has been given to effects of learner personality characteristics on learner linguistic performance in group oral task context. The present study thus aims to investigate how learner extroversion level may affect their oral performance in group oral assessment situations.

Learner personality and L2 performance

The aspect of personality that has received most attention in second language pedagogy research is extroversion and introversion, which results from personality theories developed in the field of psychology. According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1985), a highly extroverted person is sociable, easy-going, has many friends, needs excitement, and tends to be aggressive and a risk-taker, whereas a highly introverted person is quiet, reserved and introspective, and seldom behaves in an aggressive manner. A widely-held belief in the language pedagogy community is that extroverts are more likely to perform better in L2 use and communication situations. This belief is largely based on the assumption that because of extroverts' preferences for social activities, they are more willing to speak out and demonstrate a greater desire to communicate, which may enable them to achieve a higher level of speaking fluency (Swain 1993). However, to date there has been little empirical evidence that supports this hypothesis.

Relatively few studies have examined the effects of learner personality on L2 performance. Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978), who examined personality characteristics and linguistic performance among a group of Canadian students learning French as a second language, found no correlation between extroversion scores and the learners' French language performance. In a comprehensive review of the literature concerning personality and linguistic performance, Dewaele and Furnham (2000) suggest that extroversion may not be a predictor of L2 learner linguistic performance. For example, Ehrman and Oxford's study (1995) revealed no effect of extroversion-introversion on end-of-training proficiency measures. Carrell, Prince and Astika (1996) found that except that the introverts performed significantly better than the extroverts on the vocabulary and composite course measures, there were no other direct relationships between personality and language performance measures. Most recently, in a study of 3145 students participating in full-time, intensive training in over 60 languages, Ehrman (2008) found the students who performed the best in speaking and reading assessment tended to be introverted personalities.

Meanwhile, there are a number of other studies that demonstrated significant relationships in some way between personality characteristics and L2 learner oral performance. Berry's (2004) investigation of extroversion and group oral performance showed that both extroverts and introverts were assigned higher scores for their performance when placed in groups with a high mean level of extroversion, and that the scores of the introverts were suppressed when placed in groups with a low mean level of extroversion. Ockey (2009) also found a complex relationship between test takers' scores on the group oral assessment and the personal characteristics of a test taker's group members. Assertive test takers' scores were affected by the assertiveness of a test taker's group members, while non-assertive test takers' scores were not found to be affected by the personal characteristics of the test taker's group members. Relying on calculating discourse-based linguistic measures of accuracy and fluency, Dewaele and Furnham (2000) analyzed the French oral interlanguage of 25 Flemish university students and related these measures to the students' extroversion scores. They found that extroverts were generally more fluent than the introverts.

In general the available research into personality characteristics and L2 performance that has so far yielded inconsistent findings largely relied on psychometric analyses of certain personality traits and analytic or overall score data drawn from subjective ratings of learner language performance. This study which views learners' oral linguistic performance as discourse constructed through interactions employed various discourse-based linguistic measures for assessing learners' oral performance, in addition to use of assessment scores awarded by the assessor. Besides correlating these linguistic measures and scores to participants' degree of extroversion measured by the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, in-depth analysis of the discourse and interaction of an extrovert and an introvert were conducted to further examine whether and how personality characteristics might be manifested in their verbal and non-verbal behavior. The major research question addressed in this article is:

- How does learner extroversion level relate to their L2 oral performance in a group oral assessment context?

II. THIS STUDY

A. Participants and Assessment Task

In line with a paradigm shift in approaches to both learning and assessment, the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA) has recently introduced a school-based oral assessment component into the senior secondary English language curriculum as part of its reform of the high-stakes formal examination system. The aim of this school-based assessment component is to assess authentic oral language use in low-stress conditions using multiple assessment tasks in real time situations (School-Based Assessment Consultancy Team, 2005). One of the characteristics of this school-based assessment is that in contrast to the traditional oral external examination, it shifts control of assessment output to teachers through ensuring that the teachers use a common framework of assessment standards. Consequently, all the teachers involved in this school-based assessment program attend a thorough professional development support program to be trained about the use of the detailed assessment criteria.

The data for this study were drawn from oral performances by 39 Cantonese-mother-tongue Form 4 (that is, Grade 9) secondary school ESL students engaging in school-based oral English assessment that has recently been implemented across secondary schools in Hong Kong by the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA). The students, aged 14–17, were all female students. As such, a potential sex-of-interlocutor effect might not represent a variable that would impact on the performance. When this study was carried out, the students were studying in a Band One school[1] in which the medium of instruction was English except in the Chinese language and history class.

The assessment task which the students engaged in was a group discussion task. This task type is defined by the HKEAA (2010:8) as: an exchange of short turns or dialogue with more than one speaker on a common topic. An interaction is jointly constructed by two or more speakers, hence generally needs less explicit structuring but more attention to turn-taking skills and more planning of how to initiate, maintain and/or control the interaction by making suggestions, asking for clarification, supporting and/or developing each other's views, disagreeing and/or offering alternatives.

Prior to the assessment, students chose their own group members. Each four-member group[2] was seated in a small circle and given about five minutes for preparation. The topic for each group discussion was to promote a book they had read in the regular reading/viewing program embedded into the English language curriculum, which functions as a springboard to the assessment. Each group discussion lasted about eight minutes. While the participants were engaged in the group discussion, the teacher assessor, who had been well trained through the professional development support program offered by the HKEAA, sat nearby and assessed each participant with a scoring sheet, following the assessment criteria that cover six levels (Level one represents the lowest level and Level six represents the highest level) of oral English proficiency in the four major domains[3] of English language performance (see Davison, 2007). Each participant thus received a separate score for each of the four domains of assessment criteria, as well as a global score as a result of the aggregation of the domain scores, awarded by the teacher-assessor.

The video-taped group interactions were transcribed following conversation analysis conventions (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984) by a research assistant who was a bilingual speaker of Cantonese and English. The data were then coded by the present researcher himself.

B. Coding the Video-recordings of the Students' Oral Performance

The coding of the data consisted of four major steps. First, the transcripts of the video-recordings were coded for the following production units (i.e., T-units, clauses, verb phrases and words). The present researcher extracted and put together all that was said by each group member, and then coded each group member's speech for those production units. Secondly, after coding for those production units was done, the subsequent calculation of the frequency of each of those production units, as well as the calculation of the accuracy and complexity measures (see below), was conducted. Thirdly, coding for and calculation of the fluency measures (see below) was conducted. This step of work was carried out separately as it involved viewing the original video-recordings and coding for syllables, pauses, repetitions and reformulations. The whole coding and calculation process was completed by the present researcher by hand in about a month's time. During the coding period, a random sample of four transcripts was checked by another researcher. The discrepancies that arose were then solved by discussion until agreement was reached.

C. Linguistic (that is, Accuracy, Complexity and Fluency) Measures

1. Accuracy

Following Skehan and Foster (1997, 1999), for this study, accuracy was calculated by dividing the number of error free clauses by the total number of clauses.

2. Complexity

Based on a review of complexity-related research work, the following four measures were identified as measures of grammatical complexity used in this study.

1) Length of T-units in terms of number of words

Previous research suggests that T-unit length is capable of discriminating learner interlanguage proficiency satisfactorily (Iwashita, 2006), and has been widely used as a measure of complexity (Skehan and Foster, 1997). "Its relevance is that the more words added to a syntactic structure – while holding it in mind and keeping track of the current clause structure – the heavier the processing load" (Bygate, 1999:196). Both Polio (1997) and Bygate (1999) see a T-unit as a grammatically defined structure, consisting of an independent finite clause plus any finite or nonfinite clauses depending on it. For example,

I think there are so many benefits (one T-unit).

Helen has a horrible date and Peter gets stood up (two T-units).

For this study, the mean length of T-unit was thus derived by dividing the total number of words by the total number of T-units.

2) The number of clauses per T-unit (the T-unit complexity ratio)

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[1] Band One schools represent the best secondary schools in Hong Kong.
[2] One group had three group members.
[3] These four domains are: Pronunciation & Delivery; Communication Strategies; Vocabulary & Language Patterns; and Ideas & Organization.

Previous L2 studies often report this measure as being indicative of general language complexity. It is assumed that the more clauses per T-unit, the more complex the speech. This measure was calculated by dividing the total number of clauses by the total number of T-units. Following Iwashita (2006), two types of clauses were identified in this study: independent and dependent clauses. For example,

They live together (independent clause) but they are not a couple (independent clause).

They will sing songs (independent clause) when the children get into trouble (dependent clause).

3) The ratio of dependent clauses to the total number of clauses (the dependent clause ratio)

This measure reflects the degree of embedding. It was calculated by dividing the number of dependent clauses by the total number of clauses.

4) The number of verb phrases per T-unit (the verb–phrase ratio)

This measure was calculated by dividing the total number of verb phrases by the total number of T-units. Verb phrases refer to all nonfinite verbs, that is, bare infinitives, to infinitives, gerunds, and gerundives (see Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). For example,

He always dreamed of <u>playing</u> in the big league (gerund)

What makes you <u>think</u> this way? (bare infinitive)

3. Fluency

Following Kormos and D énes (2004), Yuan and Ellis (2003), and Ellis and Yuan (2005), the following four features were identified as the measures of fluency for this study:

1) Speech rate

Speech rate was calculated by dividing the total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample by the amount of time (expressed in seconds) required to produce the speech sample, including pause time. The outcome was then multiplied by sixty to give a figure expressed in syllables per minute.

2) The number of silent pauses per minute

In analyzing pauses, pauses over 0.2 seconds were considered. The total number of pauses was then divided by the total amount of time spent speaking expressed in seconds. The outcome was then multiplied by sixty.

3) The number of filled pauses per minute

The total number of filled pauses such as "uhm", "er", "mm" were divided by the total amount of time expressed in seconds. The outcome was then multiplied by sixty.

4) The number of repetitions and reformulations per minute

The total number of repetitions and reformulations were divided by the total amount of time expressed in seconds. The outcome was then multiplied by sixty.

D.   The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) is one of the most widely used psychometric tools in research on personality. This study used the concise version of the EPQ, i.e., the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-r (EPQ-r) (Eysenck, Eysenck and Barrett, 1985) to determine their degree of extroversion. The extroversion–introversion scale in the EPQ-r has 12 questions that identify the level of extroversion. The higher the score on the 12 items of the extroversion–introversion scale, the more the subject tends towards the extroversion personality trait.

E.   In-depth Analysis of Discourse and Interaction of an Extrovert and an Introvert

To provide further insights into the issue of extroversion–introversion and group oral performance, an in-depth analysis of the nature of discourse and interaction was undertaken of two participants classified as an extrovert and an introvert based on their scores on the 12 items of the extroversion–introversion scale in the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire.

III.   RESULTS

A.   Correlation between Degree of Extroversion and Students' Assessment Scores

To examine the relation of both the global scores and domain scores awarded to each participant with the level of extroversion, Pearson's correlation was performed. As can be seen in Table 1, both the participants' global scores and domain scores awarded by the certified teacher-assessor appear to show almost no correlation with extroversion level. These findings seem to echo the findings of Ehrman and Oxford's study (1995) that revealed no effect of extroversion on end-of-training linguistic performance measures.

TABLE 1
CORRELATION OF ASSESSMENT SCORES WITH EXTROVERSION LEVEL

Assessment scores	Extroversion
Global score	-.027
Pronunciation and delivery	.092
Communication strategies	-.070
Vocabulary and language patterns	-.052
Ideas and organization	-.077

B.   Correlation between Degree of Extroversion and Discourse-based Measures

To examine the relation of the 9 discourse-based measures with the level of extroversion, Pearson's correlation was also performed. The figures for fluency, accuracy, and complexity measures were correlated with extroversion level measured by the EPQ-r. As is shown in Table 2, three linguistic measures (i.e., error-free clauses ratio, number of clauses per T-unit, and number of silent pauses per minute) obtained small and non-significant correlations with level of extroversion; whereas all the other linguistic measures generated almost no correlations, which are not worth reporting. Overall, the figures in Table 2 thus do not seem to suggest any clear effects of extroversion on individual's oral linguistic performance in this study. Worthy to note is that statistics in Table 2 show that one of the fluency measures, i.e., number of silent pauses per minute, demonstrated a positive correlation with extroversion. This is somewhat in contrast to Dewaele and Furnham's (2000) observation that the more extroverted speakers tended to speak with a faster speech rate and with fewer pauses in their speech.

TABLE 2
CORRELATION OF LINGUISTIC MEASURES WITH EXTROVERSION LEVEL

Linguistic measures	*Extroversion*
Ratio of error-free clauses to total number of clauses	-.124
Length of T-unit	.001
Number of clauses per T-unit	-.125
Ratio of dependent clauses to total number of clauses	.025
Ratio of verb phrases to total number of T-units	.046
Speech rate	-.052
Number of silent pauses per minute	.169
Number of filled pauses per minute	-.004
Number of repetitions and reformulations per minute	.017

C.   In-depth Analysis of Discourse and Interaction of an Extrovert and an Introvert: Cathy and Shirley

We now take a detailed look at the oral performance produced by the two participants, Cathy and Shirley. Cathy was classified as an extrovert as her score on the extroversion–introversion scale in the questionnaire was 12, the highest score on the scale, whereas Shirley was classified as an introvert as her score on the extroversion–introversion scale was 1, the lowest score on the scale. In terms of the four major domains of the task performance assessed by the teacher, both Shirley and Cathy were assigned the same score on Pronunciation and Delivery and Ideas and organization, but Shirley scored higher in Communication Strategies, and Vocabulary and Language Patterns, which enabled Shirley to obtain a remarkably higher global score.

First, within Cathy's group, she gives the impression that she takes the lead in the group by using a better range of turn-taking strategies than most of the group to initiate and maintain interaction, questioning others as well as expressing her own ideas:

Extract 1
1   Cathy: I've read a book *Making Friends,* which is written by the famous author
2   Andrew Matthews. Did anyone of you read it before?
3   Ivy: I read that before. It mention that human relationship is the source of most of life's pleasure
4   and pain.
5   Betty: It is a book about how to improve the relationship with the people around
6   us and how to make friends with others.
7   Cathy: It tells us some points of how to get along with each other and the way of
8   communication with our friends.
9   Ivy: The point mentioned in the book was filled with examples and cartoons (.2) which make us
10   easy to understand and (1.0) deepen our impression.
11 Cathy: Yes, the comics inside (.2) also attract the readers' attention and the words in the book are not
12   too difficult for us to read and easier to understand.

Extract 1 shows that the discussion begins with Cathy assuming an initiator role to orient the whole group to the assigned assessment task. This orientation is displayed through her saying *I've read a book Making Friends, which is written by the famous author Andrew Matthews. Did anyone of you read it before?* Immediately, Cathy's opening move is followed by two other members' contributions that substantially topicalize Cathy's s initiation. Following up the contributions, Cathy comments in Line 7: *It tells us some points of how to get along with each other and the way of communication with our friends*, which leads to further response from a peer group member about the content of the book. In Lines 11-12, Cathy's turn nicely builds on the preceding utterance and provides further comments on the content of the book. It can thus be seen that Cathy apparently assumes the role of interaction manager who initiates question moves, follows up other speakers' contributions in a timely manner, sustaining and extending conversational exchanges in the interaction.

Extract 2 below seems to suggest that Cathy is somewhat a risk-taker, willing to open her mouth and try to

communicate:
   Extract 2
   26   Betty: Let us say how to advertise our book because we are going to publish it.
   27   Judy: Okay.
   28   Cathy: Okay. We should (0.5) umm, umm (.4) ((smile)) what should we do?
   29   Betty: Umm I think we should talk about the attractive points of this book and try to think of the
   30   ways to advertise it. So I think um the book cover is
   31   (.2) very attractive and teenagers will I think teenagers will (.5) will
   32   like (.8) this.
   33   Cathy: ((looking at Betty and nodding))The cover of the book is very important. Um it should be
   34   colourful and (.5) um um more pictures.
   In Line 26 of Extract 2, Betty suggests that the group talk about the ways to advertise their book. The next speaker replies with an *Okay* (Line 27). Cathy's follow-up in Line 28 reflects her efforts to take up Betty's challenging question and figure out concrete ways to advertise their book. Yet, Cathy somewhat got stuck in this as is shown in the following filled and unfilled pauses. With a smile as a springboard to get her out of this dilemma, she immediately asks *what should we do* to maintain interaction. Cathy's verbal behavior here indicates that she is willing to take up challenging questions, probably she is being a bit adventurous, yet she adapts herself well when she finds herself caught in a dilemma. Meanwhile, Extract 2 reveals that Cathy shows the ability to use some features of appropriate body language to encourage and display interest through smiling, nodding, and making good eye contact not only when listening, but also when speaking.
   It can also be seen from the transcript that Cathy actively assists other group members to both find the right linguistic forms and to express meaning:
   Extract 3
   48 Ivy: It's no fun to be alone so I think (.5) by reading this book can (1.0)
   49 Cathy: improve the relationship
   In Line 48 of Extract 3, there appears a long pause at the end of Ivy's utterance *It's no fun to be alone so I think (.5) by reading this book can (1.0)*, suggesting Ivy has apparent difficulty choosing appropriate words to say what she wants to say. Seeing this, Cathy interjects with *improve the relationship* in Line 49. In this case, Cathy's scaffolding – suggesting things Ivy could say – casts her as a sympathetic and supportive peer group member.
   In addition, the closing implicative talk is further illustrative of Cathy's role as the 'principal interlocutor' during this group discussion:
   Extract 4
   136   Betty: You should think in a positive way.
   137   Cathy: Yes and learn the good things (.5) in the book. And make friends with
   138   each other.
   139   Betty: I think this book (.2) is suitable for (.8) people of any age because it
   140   teaches us how to (1.0) err deal with (.2) the (.5) problems around us.
   141   Ivy: Like bullying others.
   142   Betty: Yes. It also teaches us how to handle criticism.
   143   Cathy: Yes, so anything else to say?
   144   Judy: No.
   145   Cathy: Okay. This is the end.
   This closing phase of the talk shows how Cathy makes 'arrangements' (see Lines 137 and 145) to smoothly bring the discussion to an end, providing evidence that Cathy plays an essential role in bringing the discussion to completion.
   Within Shirley's group, it is discovered that Shirley only has 2 turns throughout
   the interaction, one of which is an initiating turn at the beginning of the talk in her group:
   Extract 5
   1   Shirley: Good morning everyone. Today we are going to discuss about how can
   2   we advertise and promote this book *Bullying*. Um (1.0) it is written by
   3   Aidan (.4) and Ann. They are both psychologists. They receive emails
   4   from youngsters who are being bullied and in these emails the teenagers often write
   5   about their experiences and feelings of being bullied. And
   6   they were asked about the questions that worry them. And Ann (.2)
   7   Aidan or Ann will reply them by telling them the best solutions and
   8   encouraging them to stand up and voice out their problems. This book is an extract of
   9   these emails between the authors and (.5) the teenagers.
   10   They pick up the most common problems, which make the teenagers
   11   most anxious. After reading this book we have a better understanding of
   12   bullying.
   In contrast to Cathy's initiating utterances, this long turn of Shirley's is full of long and complex sentences with

well-organised structure. Her pace, probably most accurately described as deliberate, shows some hesitation. When speaking, however, her eyes are primarily focused on the camera, and occasionally she is looking down at the sheets of notes in front of her. Regardless of how sophisticated and varied her vocabulary and language patterns are, this initiating move of hers seems to have been scripted in advance and is probably simply read aloud.

The other chunk of speech Shirley makes represents an attempt to initiate a new topic for interaction, but it seemingly ignores the previous remarks. In other words, she seems to initiate the next part of the interaction without making any response to the previous speaker:

Extract 6
52   Jenny: Yea, culture. And I think that this can make people know better about (1.0) are they
53   bullying others or they are (.2) just (1.0) teasing others.
54   Shirley: I think apart from the book is useful another selling point is it is easy to
55   read. It is because (.5) um it is categorized (.2) into different parts and but topic of each
56   chapter is a question and there are emails regarding to that question but (.5) um it is not in
57   a whole paragraph form like other books to do.

Extract 6 shows that Shirley presents ideas clearly and with well-organised structure. Her language patterns appear complex. Probably because of this, the assessor might get the impression that she probably has a good grasp of vocabulary and language patterns. Her weakness, however, lies in the relevance of her ideas and the appropriateness of her responses to others. In Lines 52-53, the preceding speaker, Jenny, seems to be talking about the linkage between culture and bullying behaviour. In Line 54, instead of making any comments or acknowledgement about Jenny's remarks, Shirley directly starts with "I think apart from the book is useful another selling point is it is easy to read.", which seems not much connected to the content of the Jenny's turn, but quite related to Shirley's own initiating turn in Extract 5. In addition, throughout the interaction, it can be seen from the videotape that Shirley is nearly always focused on her own speech and does not show interest in what others are saying. The awkwardness in the relevance and organisation of her contributions to the interaction may thus lead us to doubt her willingness and ability to respond contingently to others.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study examines the potential impact of learner personality characteristics on their L2 oral performance in a group oral assessment context. The results show no significant correlations between degree of extroversion and students' assessment scores, and between degree of extroversion and those discourse-based measures. One possibility for this lack of significant correlations could be that the students' personality traits under investigation might not be strong enough to compete with other learner characteristics such as language aptitude, target language proficiency level, or information processing strategies. Moreover, the participants in this study were all female students studying in a local Band One school. This relative homogeneity might lower the effects of extroversion on the linguistic performance, and consequently might result in reduction in correlation strength. Another different group of students might have produced different performance. It is thus possible that profound effect of extroversion on oral linguistic performance could be learner (or culture) specific and context dependent. Similar research needs to be carried out using different groups of students participating in group oral tasks. Another possibility for lack of significant correlations between extroversion and the students' performance could be that the students' personality traits might interact with either learner- or task-related variables in oral assessment situations in unpredictable and highly individual ways , preventing generalised linear associations (such as correlations) from reaching overall significance. Future research thus needs to examine how personality traits may interact with various other variables in affecting L2 performance through use of sophisticated statistical procedures. It is also desirable to carry out longitudinal studies to examine whether and to what extent the effect of the extraversion–introversion dimension on L2 production remains stable over time.

Somewhat in contrast to Dewaele and Furnham's (2000) finding that more extroverted students tended to speak more fluently with fewer pauses, one of the four discourse-based fluency measures in this study, that is, number of silent pauses per minute, obtained a positive correlation with level of extroversion, although this correlation is non-significant. One interpretation of this result might be that when engaged in a speaking task, L2 learners need to think not only about what to say but also how to say it due to the imperfectly learned L2 system (Krashen, 1988). In other words, L2 learners face challenges not only from demands of processing the task itself but also from demands of processing an imperfectly known language. Consequently, in the case of secondary school ESL students, such as the participants in this study, those relatively more extroverted students who might speak more in spontaneous conversations might have silent pauses more frequently as a result of their under-developed L2 interlanguage system.

Finally, the in-depth analysis of the discourse and interaction of the two extreme cases, that is., an extrovert and an introvert, seems to echo some generally hypothesized differences between different personality types in oral production and communication in the SLA literature. The extroverted student in this study apparently demonstrated a more active and responsive participation in the assigned assessment task, reflecting a desire to communicate, and a tendency to lead the interactions and to take up challenging questions. The introverted student's mode of participation seemed to be characterized as being reticent, passive and cautious, and lacked a sense of connection with others. However, it appears that these differences in discourse and interaction between the two students were not reflected in the assessment scores

awarded. It was likely that the teacher assessor in this study might focus more on some areas of learner performance than on some other areas. Consequently, the teacher assessor factor might have helped to blur the effects of the potential personality distinctions between the two students. This raises the issue of the adequacy of teacher assessor training in the current school-based assessment program. In this case, there seems to be a pressing need to conduct research on the extent to which teacher assessors can be trained to effectively take into account aspects of learner performance in group oral assessment context.

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Zhengdong Gan is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of English at the Hong Kong Institute of Education. He obtained his PhD in applied linguistics from the Hong Kong Polytechnic University in 2003. His research interests include second language performance assessment, conversation analysis, and self-directed language learning. He has published in *Applied Linguistics*, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics,* and *Language Testing*.

Psycholinguistic Perspectives on Comprehension in SLA

Parisa Naseri Karimvand
Payam-e-noor University, Iran
Email: prsnaseri@yahoo.com

Abstract—There are many interesting areas of investigation in the psychology of second language acquisition (SLA). One of these interesting areas is study of the psycholinguistic processes and perspectives relevant to reading and listening comprehension. Comprehension of any given text or speech, in SLA, is based on much more than simple decoding. Familiarity with cultural nuance, structure of the language, vocabulary development, background knowledge about the setting and/or topic, and attitude toward the text are some of the most common factors involved in the process of comprehension by English learners. Listening and reading have many things in common. Both listening and reading are a form of language comprehension in which one is trying to get some meaning from the language. Understanding how comprehension works can have huge implications in language pedagogy, testing and research. So, this paper aims at providing a general overview about reading and listening comprehension in SLA, based on the literature review. In this regard, first a brief introduction to SLA Psycholinguistic theories and their pros and cons is presented. Later, the study is narrowed down to the very processes involved in comprehension of reading and listening, in particular. At the end, a short discussion about the brain's language areas active in the process of comprehension is ensued.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, psycholinguistic, reading comprehension, SLA

I. INTRODUCTION

Prior to the time of Chomsky, "little was known about the process of second language acquisition, and thus (traditional approaches) were grounded in the linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical theories of their day." Nowadays there are major theories of language acquisition and language learning which many psycholinguists and applied linguistics are familiar with: Behaviorism, Neo-behaviorism, Cognitivism, and Humanism. Currently, there are hot debates about the last two theories. What follows is the brief introduction to the famous psycholinguistic approaches and hypothesis in SLA.

II. FAMOUS PSYCHOLINGUISTIC APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING (SLL)

Psycholinguistic approaches to SLL, mainly interactionists, conceive language learning (LL) as a cognitive and individual process in which knowledge is constructed as the learner is (1) exposed to comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), (2) is given opportunities to both, negotiate meaning (Gass, 1997) and (3) receive negative feedback (Long, 1996). Major pycholinguistic approaches to SLL tend to agree that a learner needs to be exposed to input. However, there is no agreement on the type of input needed and much less, how such input is processed in order to become acquired (Gass, 1997).

One of the less accepted theories of input is Krashen's input hypothesis (1985).This theory predicts the likelihood for a learner to acquire a language when he/she is exposed to comprehensible input. Thus, to increase the chances for input comprehension, input should be just one step beyond the learner's current stage of linguistic competence.

Although numerous SLA scholars have favored and/or contradicted Krashen's model of SLA based on arguments such as flaws in the theory and lack of empirical support data (see Gass, 1997), Long (1996) revisited Krashen's input hypothesis to explore forms in which input comprehensibility can be increased and proposed the interaction hypothesis (IH). The interaction hypothesis asserts that besides the input the learner is exposed to, manipulation of such input through interaction is what forms the basis for language development. According to Long (1996) input comprehensibility increases as learners interact and use different type of interactional modifications (comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests) to overcome communication breakdowns. Long's initial work was criticized by SLA scholars, mostly outside of the interactionist areas, who believed that he did not provide clear-cut definitions and proper examples for each type of modification. The point is that learners need to receive negative feedback while in IH-based hypothesis, emphasis was initially placed on the task and learners' variables that seem to favor SLLs.

Another famous psycholinguistic approach to SLA is Socio-cultural approach. Studies in SLA from the socio-cultural perspective are based on the work of Vigotsky (1978) in which three main themes are identified: mediation, social learning and genetic analysis. Mediation describes how tools and signs transform human action and influence the way people perceive the world. In this sense, language is perceived as the most powerful mediational tool because through

the use of words different things can be accomplished. Social learning is explained by the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) metaphor. The ZPD is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (as cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). The last theme identified in the Vigotskian framework, genetic analysis, under scores the importance of looking for causes, genesis or origins and histories to understand different aspects of mental functioning. Language development resulting from the interaction of expert-novice (also known as the scaffolding metaphor) has also been an interest of research in the socio-cultural theory. Scaffolding refers to the assistance provided by a more capable learner to his interlocutor and that enables him to do activities he would not have been able to do without such assistance (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

In the state of art review of socio-cultural theory and L2, Lantolf (2006) suggests that the union of socio-cultural theory and cognitive linguistics may help to better explain how language learners internalize and develop the capacity to develop conceptual and associated linguistic knowledge. He also suggests that further research could investigate if there is a connection between the linguistic features of the private speech of L2 learners and the linguistic features of interaction occurring between L2 speakers.

During the recent years, the new attempts of some cognitivists and socio-cultural researchers have opened up new methodologies and collaborate in SLA comprehension studies. It has stimulated the field and complete insights of L2 comprehension.

Now that principle theories in SLA has just introduced, in the rest of the paper the writer, particularly, deals with reviewing the primary psycholinguistic processes involved in SLA comprehension. In this regard, first general points about speech comprehension processes are explained. Then, phenomena common to reading and listening comprehension are clarified. Furthermore, phenomena specific to the comprehension of the spoken language is presented. Finally, famous language areas involved in SLA comprehension is explained.

III. SPEECH COMPREHENSION PROCESSES IN SLA

Study of speech comprehension processes is important in various ways. For instance, it has direct relationship with recognition of psycholinguistic processes of output and why comprehensible input is not enough to drive the learners' IL development. Decades of research in psycholinguistics give us some useful insights in this regard. Some of the major characteristics of human speech comprehension processes can be briefly summarized as follows (for detailed discussion, see Fender, 2001):

• Comprehension processes rely on three types of information: linguistic input, contextual information, and the recipient's linguistic and other general knowledge of the world, including semantic and pragmatic knowledge.

• Comprehension is differentially affected by the linguistic devices used in the sentence. The use of linguistic cues in comprehension processes is referred to as bottom-up processing.

• Comprehension is differentially affected by the existence, type and the amount of contextual clues provided. People tend to seek contextual consistency in comprehending speech.

• Comprehension is differentially affected by the general world knowledge possessed by the recipients. The use of contextual clues and world knowledge in comprehension processes is referred to as top-down processing.

• Comprehension is selective because humans possess limited processing capacities.

These characteristics of the human speech comprehension system suggest that highly complex processes underlie speech comprehension. People do not rely on only one general knowledge source to understand speech, but they use various resources available to them, using both top-down and bottom-up approaches, to arrive at the comprehension of the input messages.

In fact, some researchers argue that even adult native listeners/readers do not use the two general approaches of syntactic and semantic processing equally in comprehending speech. Clark and Clark (1977), for example, argue that syntactic information may be circumvented in comprehension processes in listening and reading because people can usually make good guesses about what is to be comprehended even before they hear/read anything. In reading research, Stanovich's (1980) interactive-compensatory model of reading posits that the reader is not merely a passive recipient of the printed information, but as an active subject in the whole process who uses all the knowledge resources available to him/her. What is particularly interesting about this model is not just the interactive nature of the reading processes, but its compensatory mechanisms. If there is a deficiency in any particular process (e.g., weak syntactic knowledge), other processes (e.g., higher-order knowledge structures, such as contextual or general world information that the reader has access to) can compensate for the weak knowledge source. Thus, with information provided simultaneously from several knowledge sources, a deficit in any knowledge results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources.

In first language acquisition literature, it has been claimed that children typically rely on general world knowledge for comprehension, such as their general knowledge about the instigators of actions which are typically animate, probable relations between nouns in a sentence, and the knowledge of the usual routine in particular circumstances to decide how to act. In SLA, as well, restricted L2 knowledge of the learners makes them rely on certain strategies more than others. Skehan (1998), for example, argues that L2 learners use a variety of strategies of comprehension that may obviate careful attention to form. Skehan points out that L2 learners are those who have 'schematic knowledge' (i.e., factual and sociocultural background knowledge and discoursal procedural knowledge), but have limited 'systemic

knowledge' (i.e., syntactic, semantic, and morphological knowledge). Such learners may be likely to exploit their schematic knowledge to overcome limitations in their systemic knowledge. This can lead to a reduced chance for the engagement of the IL system.

To summarize, although the resourceful nature of the comprehension system is highly useful in making L2 comprehension possible, this also implies that L2 learners can attain an adequate level of comprehension without necessarily focusing on many formal features in the input. This can lead to a reduction in the amount of intake that can be used for final integration in the developing system.

Particularly speaking from psycholinguistic perspective, in language comprehension and speech perception many factors are at work. First of all, we have to identify single sounds that make up recognizable words, then retrieve from our mental lexicon the meaning of these words, which in their turn form meaningful sentences in a given situation. If split up into these 'logical' steps, however, the process of speech perception is inconceivable. Strictly speaking, our short-term memory is not able to store that much information at once. To give an example: If we had to decode every single sound when listening to somebody, we would already have forgotten the first sound of a long word once we had identified the last one (let alone the word boundaries). The same holds true for the decoding of the smallest text units, i.e. letters. This is why we can only explain the phenomenon of speech perception if we take the following assumptions as a basis:

a) As experienced listeners we have at our disposal a large amount of previous information as well as specific expectations as to what we are about to hear. Consequently, we just have to check whether our expectations are confirmed by what we have actually heard. To put it crudely, in many cases we do not necessarily hear what our interlocutor says but what we expect to hear. This is the reason why many nonsense errors or mispronounced words in speech go unnoticed or are easily forgotten, whereas meaningful errors can often be remembered.

b) Apart from this, we are constantly building up new hypotheses on what will come next while listening. Similarly to the role of our pre-expectations, we compare these hypotheses with what we have just heard. Since we often know, or at least think we know, what our interlocutors are about to say next, we sometimes tend to interrupt them or add to their utterance.

c) Finally, every word that has been recognized and every sentence that has been understood are instantly transferred to different, 'higher' forms of representation in our memory and are integrated into our dynamic horizon of expectations and stock of knowledge. This means that we rarely store individual words or the wording of sentences but rather the rough meaning of what has been said. As a result, our memory is rather unreliable as far as details are concerned, and we often add things to our stock of knowledge that have never been actually said. The processing of words, i.e. their location and the attribution of meaning within the networks of the mental lexicon, is usually done within milliseconds. However, the exact strategies, which even allow for an efficient categorization of non-words, appear to be individual and thus are not generalisable. What we can record in this regard is the following: Words are primarily, but not necessarily, stored as wholes. There is also the possibility of splitting them up if required (e.g. into morphemes). Further, words can be connected within the mind via their (initial and final) sounds and rhythm as well as via their syntactic relations. What is more, semantic networks may very probably be activated, including relations such as synonymy, antonymy, hyperonymy, hyponymy etc.

Mental processes with respect to language may be neither definable nor common to all. However, different psycholinguistic models exist that try to elucidate word recognition. On the one hand, words are said to be processed linearly, i.e. one after the other, while frequent words are recognized more easily and thus faster. On the other hand, and this might be the option which comes closer to reality, words are said to be processed in parallel. In the latter view, possible meanings are weighed against each other, resulting in an interpretation that suits the context best. In fact, we are linguistic puzzle-solvers from early childhood on. The storage of linguistic structures and functions in the mind, i.e. knowledge, is directly linked to comprehension.

IV. PHENOMENA COMMON TO READING AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Comprehension of written and spoken language can be difficult, in part, because it is not always easy to identify the constituents (phrases) of a sentence and the ways in which they relate to one another. The place of a particular constituent within the grammatical structure may be temporarily or permanently ambiguous. Studies of how people resolve grammatical ambiguities, like studies of how they resolve lexical ambiguities, have provided insights into the processes of language comprehension. Clark (1997) found that readers' eyes fixated for longer than usual on the verb which disambiguates the sentence. Following Bever (1970), Clark described their readers as being led down a garden path. Readers are led down the garden path, Clark (1997) claimed, because the direct object analysis is structurally simpler than the other possible analysis. These researchers proposed a principle, minimal attachment, which defined "structurally simpler," and they claimed that structural simplicity guides all initial analyses. In this view, the sentence processor constructs a single analysis of a sentence and attempts to interpret it. The first analysis is the one that requires the fewest applications of grammatical rules to attach each incoming word into the structure being built; it is the automatic consequence of an effort to get some analysis constructed as soon as possible. Many researchers have tested and confirmed the minimal attachment principle for a variety of sentence types.

Minimal attachment is not the only principle that has been proposed as governing how readers and listeners use

grammatical knowledge in parsing. Another principle that has received substantial support is late closure. Clark (1997) provided some early support for this principle by showing disruption on the phrase seems like in Since Jay always jogs a mile seems like a very short distance to him. Here, a mile is first taken to be the direct object of jogs because the processor tries to relate it to the phrase currently being processed. Reading is disrupted when a mile must be reanalyzed as the subject of seems.

Another principle is some version of prefer argument (Abney, 1989). Grammars often distinguish between arguments and adjuncts. An argument is a phrase whose relation to a verb or other argument assigner is lexically specified; an adjunct is related to what it modifies in a less specific fashion. With the sentence Joe expressed his interest in the car, the prefer argument principle predicts that a reader will attach in the car to the noun interest rather than to the verb express, even though the latter analysis is structurally simpler and preferred according to minimal attachment. In the car is an argument of interest (the nature of its relation to interest is specified by the word interest) but an adjunct of express (it states the location of the action just as it would for any action). There is substantial evidence that the argument analysis is preferred in the end (Gass, 1997). However, some evidence suggests a brief initial preference for the minimal attachment analysis. Long-distance dependencies, like ambiguities, can cause problems in the parsing of language. Language gains much of its expressive power from its recursive properties: Sentences can be placed inside sentences, without limit. This means that related phrases can be distant from one another. Many linguists describe constructions like Whom did you see t at the zoo and The girl I saw t at the zoo was my sister as having an empty element, a trace (symbolized by t), in the position where the moved element (whom and the girl) must be interpreted.

Psycholinguists who have adopted this analysis ask how the sentence processor discovers the relation between the moved element (or filler) and the trace (or gap). One possibility suggested is that the processor might delay filler-gap assignment as long as possible. However, there is evidence that the processor actually identifies the gap as soon as possible, an active filler strategy (Frazier, 1987b).

The active filler strategy is closely related to minimal attachment, for both strategies attempt to find some grammatical analysis of a sentence as soon as possible. But the active filler strategy may not be the whole story. Pickering and Barry (1991) proposed what the latter called a direct assignment strategy, according to which a filler is semantically interpreted as soon as a reader or listener encounters the verb to which it is related, without waiting for the gap position. Evidence for this strategy comes from a study in which Boland et al. presented sentences word by word, asking readers to indicate when and if a sentence became unacceptable. An implausible sentence like Which public library did John contribute some cheap liquor to t last week tended to be rejected right on the word liquor, before the position of the gap.

Most of the phenomena discussed so far show that preferences for certain structural relations play an important role in sentence comprehension. However, as syntactic theory has shifted away from describing particular structural configurations and toward specifying lexical information that constrains possible grammatical relations, many psycholinguists have proposed that the human sentence processor is primarily guided by information about specific words that is stored in the lexicon. The research on comprehenders' preference for arguments discussed earlier is one example of this.

Given the wide variety of factors that seem to affect sentence comprehension, some psycholinguists have developed lexicalist, constraint-based theories of sentence processing (Long, 2007). These theories, which are described and sometimes implemented in connectionist terms, assume that multiple possible interpretations of a sentence are available to the processor. Each possible interpretation receives activation (or inhibition) from some knowledge sources, as well as (generally) being inhibited by the other interpretations. Competition among the interpretations eventually results in the dominance of a single one. Increased competition is responsible for the effects that the theories discussed earlier have attributed to the need to revise an analysis. Constraint-based theories can accommodate influences of specific lexical information, context, verb category, and many other factors, and they have encouraged the search for additional influences. However, they may not be the final word on sentence processing. These theories correctly predict that a variety of factors can reduce or eliminate garden-path effects when a temporarily-ambiguous sentence is resolved in favor of an analysis that is not normally preferred (e.g., non-minimal attachment). But the constraint-based theories also predict that these factors will create garden paths when the sentence is resolved in favor of its normally-preferred analysis. This may not always be the case (Binder, Duffy, & Rayner, 2001).

Competitive constraint-based theories, like other connectionist theories, grant a major role to frequency. Frequent constructions should be more readily activated by appropriate sources of information than less common constructions are. Supporting this view, readers understand sentences like The award accepted by the man was very impressive more readily when the first verb is frequently used as a passive participle, as accept is, than when the verb is not frequently used as a passive particle, as with entertain (Trueswell, 1996). Competitive constraint-based theories have also emphasized discourse and situational context as constraints on sentence comprehension. Many researches described how quickly listeners integrate grammatical and situational knowledge in understanding a sentence.

Much research on text comprehension in SLA has been guided by the work of Kintsch (1978), who has proposed a series of models of the process by which the propositions that make up the semantic interpretations of individual sentences are integrated into such larger structures. His model is showed below. It describe ways in which readers could abstract the main threads of a discourse and infer missing connections, constrained by limitations of short-term memory

and guided by how arguments overlap across propositions and by linguistic cues signaled by the text.
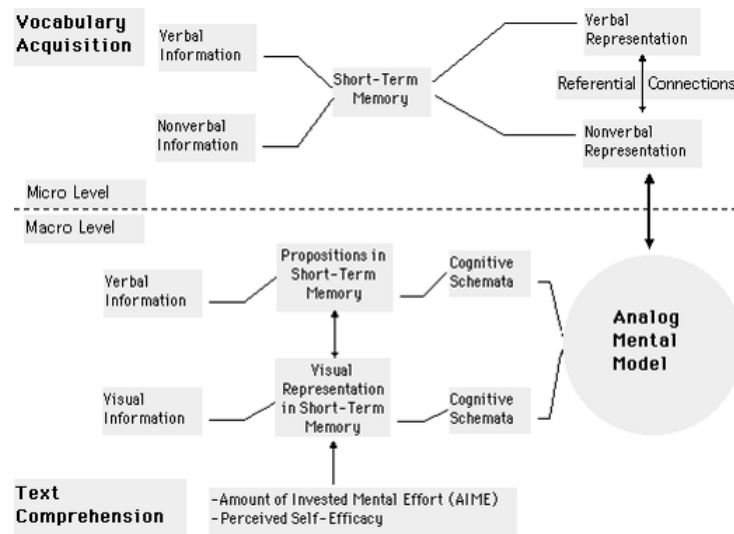
V. PHENOMENA SPECIFIC TO THE COMPREHENSION OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE

The theories and phenomena that we have discussed so far apply to comprehension of both spoken language and written language. One challenge that is specific to listening comes from the evanescent nature of speech. People can not re-listen to what they have just heard in the way that readers can move their eyes back in the text. However, the fact that humans are adapted through evolution to process auditory, not written language suggests that this may not be such a problem. Auditory sensory memory can hold information for up to several seconds (Cowan, 1984), and so language that is heard may in fact persist for longer than language that is read, permitting effective revision. In addition, auditory structure may facilitate short-term memory for spoken language. Imposing a rhythm on the items in a to-be-remembered list can help people remember them and prosody may aid memory for sentences as well (Speer, 1993). Prosody may also guide the parsing and interpretation of utterances. For example, prosody can help resolve lexical and syntactic ambiguities, it can signal the importance, novelty, and contrastive value of phrases, and it can relate newly-heard information to the prior discourse. If readers translate visually presented sentences into a phonological form, complete with prosody, these benefits may extend to reading (Bader, 1998).

Consider how prosody can permit listeners to avoid the kinds of garden paths that have been observed in reading (Clark, 1997). Several researchers have demonstrated that prosody can disambiguate utterances. In particular, an intonation phrase boundary (marked by pausing, lengthening, and tonal movement) can signal the listener that a syntactic phrase is ending. The relevant prosodic property does not seem to be simply the occurrence of a local cue, such as an intonational phrase break. Rather, the effectiveness of a prosodic boundary seems to depend on its relation to certain other boundaries (Carlson, 2001), even the global prosodic representation of a sentence.

VI. CRITICAL AREAS IN LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

The left temporal region has been implicated in several studies of sentence comprehension in both the auditory and the visual modalities (Long, 2007), and as expected, this region showed considerable activation. Although one cannot tell from the fMRI data what precise set of processes underlies the temporal region activation, this region's sensitivity to linguistic difficulty of both types is consistent with different SLA hypotheses discussed above, namely that the area plays a role in activating and perhaps coordinating the systems that support linguistic comprehension and interpretation. The left opercular region, the posterior part of Broca's area, has been implicated in numerous sentence comprehension studies. Comprehension of sentences and discourse Important as word recognition is, understanding language requires far more than adding the meanings of the individual words together. We must combine the meanings in ways that honor the grammar of the language and that are sensitive to the possibility that language is being used in a metaphoric or non-literal manner (see Cacciari & Glucksberg, 1994). Psycholinguists have addressed the phenomena of sentence comprehension in different ways. Some theorists have focused on the fact that the sentence comprehension system continually creates novel representations of novel messages, following the constraints of a language's grammar, and does so with remarkable speed. Others have emphasized that the comprehension system is sensitive to a vast range of information, including grammatical, lexical, and contextual, as well as knowledge of the speaker/writer and of the world in general. Theorists in the former group (Clark, 1997) have constructed modular, serial models that describe how the processor quickly constructs one or more representations of a sentence based on a restricted range of information that is guaranteed to be relevant to its interpretation, primarily grammatical information. Any such representation is then

quickly interpreted and evaluated, using the full range of information that might be relevant. Theorists in the latter group (Long, 2007) have constructed parallel models, often of a connectionist nature, describing how the processor uses all relevant information to quickly evaluate the full range of possible interpretations of a sentence. Neither of the two approaches just described provides a full account of how the sentence processing mechanism works. Modular models, by and large, do not adequately deal with how interpretation occurs, how the full range of information relevant to interpretation is integrated, or how the initial representation is revised when necessary. Parallel models, for the most part, do not adequately deal with how the processor constructs or activates the various interpretations whose competitive evaluation they describe. However, both approaches have motivated bodies of research that have advanced our knowledge of language comprehension, and new models are being developed that have the promise of overcoming the limitations of the models that have guided research in the past.

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Parisa Naseri Karimvand is a Ph. D candidate in TEFL. She teaches technical courses to BA students in universities. She presented technical papers in her areas of interest in national and international conferences.

Should We Teach the Impolite Language? A Study of Iranian EFL Learners, Teachers, Experts and Non-Iranian Experts' Attitudes

Alireza Ahmadi
Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran
Email: ar.ahmadi@yahoo.com

Kamal Heydari Soureshjani
Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord Branch, Iran
Email: kamal.heidari@yahoo.com

Abstract—Unlike politeness which has greatly been studied by researchers, the impolite or rude language has mostly been neglected. The current study is an attempt to examine this neglected aspect of the language. The study has focused on whether the impoliteness aspect of language should be taught in an Iranian EFL context? To this purpose, four groups of participants, namely, language learners, language teachers, Iranian language experts, and non-Iranian language experts were surveyed for their ideas toward the impolite language. No significant difference was found in the ideas of the four groups concerning "the importance of impoliteness as compared to politeness", "the equal treatment of genders in teaching impoliteness", and also concerning "the context of teaching impoliteness". Significant results were; however, found in their ideas concerning "the general significance of impoliteness in everyday language", "teaching impoliteness in language classes", "methods of teaching impoliteness (direct vs indirect)", and "the level of proficiency required for teaching impoliteness".

Index Terms—impoliteness, Iranian experts, non-Iranian experts, EFL learners, EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that much attention has been paid to the politeness aspect of language, as a branch of pragmatics, its counterpart, impoliteness, has been mostly neglected. As Mugford (2008) states, English language teaching tends to deal with the pleasant side of language interaction such as making friends, relating experiences, and expressing likes/dislikes, while ignoring such everyday communicative realities as rudeness, disrespect, and impoliteness. However, it is a truism that in order to master a language, language learners are required to learn both the politeness and impoliteness aspects of the intended language. Impoliteness is part of everyday language use and language learners need to be prepared to interact in impolite situations or at least to be able to make a distinction between polite and impolite use of language. Moreover, according to Mugford (2008), language learners have the communicative right to be rude if they want to, as long as they are aware of the consequences of their actions. And to be able to do so, teachers need to take the lead by preparing learners to communicate in pleasant, not so pleasant, and even abusive interactional and transactional situations. Preparation involves helping learners identify potentially impolite practices and offering ways of dealing with impoliteness. Mugford also illuminates that teachers, by not teaching the impoliteness aspect of language, are potentially allowing language learners to be dominated by the target language users.

In earlier publications on interpersonal communication, impoliteness was either ignored or simply treated as a pragmatic failure to meet the politeness principles of talk (Leech, 1983). More recently, however, we find a growing tendency to categorize impoliteness as a "systematic" (Lakoff, 1989), "functional" (Beebe, 1995), "purposefully offensive" (Tracy and Tracy, 1998) and "intentionally gratuitous" (Bousfield, 2008) strategy designed to attack face. Among all proposed definitions by different researchers, though they are all reasonable and respectable, it seems that the definitions by Bousfield (2008) and Culpepper et. al (2003) have gained more popularity.

Bousfield (2008) defines impoliteness as constituting the issuing of intentionally gratuitous and conflictive face-threatening acts (FTAs) that are purposefully performed. Culpeper et al. (2003, P. 11) firstly defined impoliteness as "communicative strategies designed to attack face, and thereby cause social conflict and disharmony". Later on (2005, P. 38), in another study they defined this concept in a somewhat different and more comprehensible way:

Impoliteness comes about when: (1) the speaker communicates face-attack intentionally or (2) the hearer perceives and/or constructs behavior as intentionally face-attacking, or a combination of (1) and (2).

As it can be seen from these two definitions, Bousfield and Culpeper consider the hearer's understanding of the speaker's intentions as the key for impoliteness. One point with regard to Culpeper's definition made by Bousfield (2007) is that while it is laudable that Culpeper is attempting to incorporate the role of the hearer in the construction and

communication of impoliteness – something that has been somewhat lacking in approaches previous to that study – ironically he risks doing so at the expense of the role of the speaker and the speaker's intent. He then further adds that because of this, Culpeper's (2005) definition of impoliteness is not one which could be considered to be always co-constructed by participants in interaction.

In line with this point, researchers such as Arundale (2006), Locher and Watts (2005), and Mills (2003, 2005), amongst others, argue for the necessity of a model of impoliteness which considers and accounts for the constructed nature of the phenomenon. This necessity seems to be in place and also important. When there is a model and framework explaining different aspects of impoliteness, its understanding and as a result, its teaching and learning will be more effective, practical and possible.

There have also been some studies on different forms of impoliteness. For example, Kienpointner (1997) in his study wrote on various types of rude utterance displaying impoliteness. Austin (1990) also discussed forms of impolite behavior in New Zealand. And, in a rarely quoted but fascinating article, Baumann (1981) examined what he called the 'rhetoric of impoliteness' among the early Quakers in America. All these three studies considered the variety in the forms of impoliteness which may take place in different contexts.

Spencer-Otay (2000) also offered a framework for various types of impoliteness. According to this framework, there are four types of impoliteness:

1. Individual impoliteness: impoliteness which the hearer perceives as a personal attack.
2. Social impoliteness: impoliteness which the hearer perceives as an attack on her/his social role.
3. Cultural impoliteness: impoliteness which the hearer perceives as an attack on her/his ethnic group.
4. Banter: impoliteness which reflects the playful use of impolite language.

Mugford (2008) asserts that the Spencer-Otay's taxonomy makes it possible to differentiate between impoliteness at a personal level (i.e. individual impoliteness) which may be unique and opportunistic to a given occasion and social and cultural impoliteness which may be more systematic and recurring. The inclusion of banter offers a light-hearted way of dealing with impoliteness and offers a linguistic resource which L2 speakers can employ to try to tone down perceived impoliteness. However, banter is a cooperative activity between speakers and hearers and, if not appreciated for what it is, it can be perceived as aggressive. He further adds that whether banter should be considered as one kind of impoliteness or not is a matter of controversy.

It has also been stated that lack of intimacy is a factor which some researchers claim that leads to impoliteness. However, this claim has been disapproved by some other researchers. For instance, Birchler et al. (1975) discovered that even in happy marriages, spouses were typically more hostile towards each other than strangers. In a familiar relationship one has more scope for impoliteness, because one may know which aspects of face are particularly sensitive to attack, and be able to better predict and/or cope with retaliation that may ensue. They, however, note that it is absurd to assume that the more intimate one becomes with someone, the more impoliteness one employs.

Concerning the role of impoliteness in social situations, the dynamics of social interaction allows speakers to resort to a variety of linguistic strategies which promote, maintain, or attack an addressee's face, i.e. ''the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself" (Goffman, 1967, P. 5). In some cases, a speaker may even employ a communicative strategy that deliberately creates social conflict with the addressee, thus causing disharmony between the interlocutors. Limberg (2009) focused on one of these strategies, that is, verbal threats and stated that they can be used to coerce and manipulate the target into (not) doing something which s/he considers to have an unfavorable outcome. He also asserted that there are two aspects which are particularly important in order to consider threats as a form of impoliteness. Firstly, it is a type of behavior that is purposefully initiated regardless of any face concerns towards the target. It is thereby crucial that the threatener's goals are credibly communicated to the target (Bleyle, 1995). Secondly, even though the threat utterance is issued by one speaker, impoliteness/rudeness is interactively constructed by both parties in a particular situation (Benoit, 1983).

A question which may be raised here is, whether impoliteness and rudeness are similar. Culpeper (2005) maintains that for lay people these two terms seem to be identical and they use them interchangeably. However, there seems to be some differences between them. The term rudeness, he further illuminates, could be reserved for cases where the offence is unintentionally caused, whilst the term impoliteness could be used for cases where the offence is intentionally caused. It means that the perception of intention is a crucial factor in an evaluation of the distinction between impoliteness and rudeness.

Mugford (2008) also argued that the world of L2 is not always a polite and respectful one. L2 users must be prepared to be involved in impolite and rude, as well as congenial and social interactions. While the learners' language level will be of paramount importance, L2 students, at the very least, should be aware of impoliteness in the target language. In the classroom, teachers can discuss perceptions of impoliteness in terms of intentionality, speaker purpose, and level of aggressiveness. Mugford's statement can point to the significance of the present study.

II. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Despite the importance of the impoliteness aspect of language, few researches have dealt with it adequately. Lack of research on this issue is greatly felt especially in the Iranian EFL context. Hence, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perspectives of language learners, teachers, and specialists as to the impoliteness aspect of language and

whether there should be some language teaching materials and courses to teach the impoliteness aspect of language with the intention of making language learners ready to cope with the impolite situations happening in the real language use. As such, the study tries to answer the following research question:

How do Iranian EFL learners, teachers, experts and non-Iranian experts view teaching impoliteness in language classes?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Four groups of participants took part in the present study: EFL learners, EFL teachers, Iranian language experts, and non-Iranian language experts. Language learners as the first group of the study consisted of 110 Iranian EFL students, 47 males and 63 females, ranging from 18 to 25 in age. They were all undergraduate students (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior) studying either English Language Translation or English Language Literature courses. They were selected from four state universities of Shiraz, Isfahan, Shahrekord and Ahwaz. Convenience sampling was used in selecting the participants; that is, participants were selected on the basis of their availability.

The second group of the participants included 70 Iranian EFL teachers, 23 males and 47 females, with the age range of 18-40. They all held MA degrees in English Language Teaching or were completing their MA degree in the above-mentioned universities.

As for the third and fourth groups, both Iranian and non-Iranian experts were selected to present their perspectives on the issue under study. For the Iranian experts, two professors from Shiraz University, one from Ahwaz University, one from Isfahan University, and one from Shahrekord University were picked out. Purposive sampling was employed to select the experts for the study. The criterion for selecting these professors was their publication on discourse in general and on politeness and impoliteness in particular. So they were considered as experts in this issue. The reason why only 5 experts were selected was that first of all, the number of people who could be considered as experts in this issue was very low. Second, some of the experts could not take part in the study, as they were very busy with their academic life.

Regarding the non-Iranian experts, eight professors from different universities around the world were selected. Five were non-Iranian speakers of English and three were non-non-Iranians. Table 1 summarizes the characteristics of the participants. Here again, due to communication problems, some experts did not take part in the study. Some others were also quite busy and didn't have the time to take part in the study.

TABLE 1:
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

	Non-Iranian experts		Iranian experts		Language teachers		Language learners	
Number	8		5		70		110	
Sex	Male	6	Male	5	Male	23	Male	47
	Female	2	Female	0	Female	47	Female	63
Age	18-22	0	18-22	0	18-22	17	18-22	64
	23-25	0	23-25	0	23-25	34	23-25	46
	26-30	0	26-30	0	26-30	13	26-30	0
	Over 30	8	Over 30	5	Over 30	6	Over 30	0
University	Sheffield	1	Shiraz	2	Shiraz	40	Shiraz	30
	Mexico	1	Ahwaz	1	Shahrekord	12	Shahrekord	35
	Lancaster	1	Isfahan	1	Isfahan	10	Isfahan	25
	Tampere	1	Shahrekord	1	Ahwaz	8	Ahwaz	20
	Lancashire	1						
	Birmingham	1						
	Washington	1						
	Switzerland	1						

B. Instruments

In order to collect the data of the study, a Likert-format questionnaire was developed. It consisted of three parts; the first part was related to the demographic information of the participants. The second part incorporated 31 items on the impoliteness aspect of language. And the third part was a space provided for the participants to add any points about the issue if they wished.

To develop the questionnaire, scads of related books and papers were reviewed and some pertained experts and professors were consulted. The first draft of the questionnaire consisted of more than 40 items. However, after piloting the questionnaire and running factor analysis, it was reduced to 31 items. Of course, 2 filler items were also included to spot the respondents who provided unreal or by chance answers. Factor analysis confirmed the presence of seven factors in the questionnaire. The first factor including items 2, 8, and 19 was related to the significance of impoliteness in everyday use of language. The second factor, including items 11, 14, 24, and 26, was related to the importance of impoliteness in contrast to politeness in general. The third factor was about the overall need for teaching impoliteness. It involved items 5, 6, 9, 10, 16, 28, and 31. The forth factor, including items 21, and 29, pertained to the way the impoliteness aspect of language should be taught. The fifth factor, including items 1, 3, 4, 7, 12, 15, 18, 25, 27, and 30,

was about the levels at which impoliteness should be taught. The sixth factor included items 17 and 23 and asked for the relationship between gender and impoliteness. And finally, the seventh factor which involved items 13, 20, and 22 addressed the context (EFL or ESL) in which impoliteness needs to be taught.

As for the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach Alpha was used and it turned out to be 00.68.

C. Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

The developed questionnaire was distributed among the selected participants. They were allowed to take the questionnaire home and give it back at their conveniences. The main reason for this was to make sure that they would have enough time thinking about the questions and providing real answers.

The data collected were analyzed using a One-way ANOVA to see whether different groups of participants had different ideas toward (the teaching of) impoliteness. In the next part the results are presented and discussed.

IV. RESULTS

In this section the main findings of the study are presented and illuminated. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics in this regard. This table provides us with the mean and standard deviation of the participants' responses to each of the factors (aspects of impoliteness).

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF IMPOLITENESS

	Language learner			Language teacher			Non-Iranian expert			Iranian expert		
	Number	Mean	SD	Number	Mean	SD	Number	Mean	SD	Number	Mean	SD
Factor 1	110	2.00	.22	70	1.92	.35	8	2.03	.09	5	2.35	.38
Factor 2	110	2.23	.27	70	2.31	.30	8	2.12	.47	5	2.46	.30
Factor 3	110	2.54	.28	70	2.36	.40	8	2.82	.20	5	2.22	.40
Factor 4	110	1.99	.20	70	1.87	.34	8	2	.00	5	2.70	.44
Factor 5	110	2.19	.17	70	2.27	.18	8	2.40	.15	5	2.36	.11
Factor 6	110	2.97	.11	70	2.95	.26	8	3	.00	5	2.90	.22
Factor 7	110	2.19	.37	70	2.13	.42	8	2.37	.12	5	2.60	.36

The table depicts some noticeable differences among the means, meaning that the four groups had different ideas toward different aspects of impoliteness. However, to see whether these differences were significantly different, a series of one-way ANOVA was utilized. In what follows, the results of the study are presented for each of these factors separately.

A. Factor One: The Significance of Impoliteness in Everyday Speech

The first factor considered in the present study was the significance of the impoliteness aspect of language. Table 3 depicts significant differences among the groups as to their idea concerning this factor.

TABLE 3
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE SIGNIFICANCE OF IMPOLITENESS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.02	3	.34	4.49	.005
Within groups	14.43	189	.07		
Total	15.46	192			

To see where the differences between groups exactly lay, a post-hoc test (Tucky test) was run (Table 4). It indicated that the significant differences existed only when language learners were compared with Iranian experts and also when language teachers were compared with Iranian experts.

TABLE 4
POST-HOC TEST (TUCKY) ON THE SIGNIFICANCE OF IMPOLITENESS

Dependent Variable	(I) code	(J) code	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	lg.L	lg.T	.087	.042	.165	-.02	.19
		N.I.expert	-.022	.101	.996	-.28	.24
		I.expert	-.340*	.126	.038	-.66	-.01
	lg.T	lg.L	-.087	.042	.165	-.19	.02
		N.I.expert	-.109	.103	.711	-.37	.15
		I.expert	-.428*	.127	.005	-.76	-.09
	N.I.expert	lg.L	.022	.101	.996	-.24	.28
		lg.T	.109	.103	.711	-.15	.37
		I.expert	-.318	.157	.183	-.72	.08
	I.expert	lg.L	.340*	.126	.038	.01	.66
		lg.T	.428*	.127	.005	.09	.76
		N.I.expert	.318	.157	.183	-.08	.72

B. Factor Two: The Value of Impoliteness as Compared to Politeness

The second factor was pertaining to the value of impoliteness in comparison to politeness. As indicated in table 5, the one-way ANOVA result is not significant meaning that the participants were not at variance with each other concerning their idea toward this issue.

TABLE 5
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE VALUE OF IMPOLITENESS AS COMPARED TO POLITENESS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.63	3	.21	2.45	.06
Within groups	16.24	189	.08		
Total	16.87	192			

C. Factor Three: Does Impoliteness Require Instruction?

The main point of the study was about teaching impoliteness; that is, whether impoliteness needs any instruction or not. Table 6 depicts the results of one-way ANOVA in this regard. It indicates that the differences are significant.

TABLE 6
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE IMPOLITENESS INSTRUCTION

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	2.60	3	.86	7.88	.000
Within groups	20.82	189	.11		
Total	23.42	192			

To see where exactly the differences among the four groups lay, a post hoc test (Tucky) was used. It indicated a significant difference when comparing language learners with language teachers, language teachers with non-Iranian experts, and also non-Iranian experts with Iranian experts.

TABLE 7
POST-HOC TEST (TUCKY) ON THE IMPOLITENESS INSTRUCTION

Dependent Variable	(I) code	(J) code	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	lg.L	lg.T	.178*	.050	.003	.04	.30
		N.I.expert	-.275	.121	.109	-.59	.03
		I.expert	.316	.151	.161	-.07	.71
	lg.T	lg.L	-.178*	.050	.003	-.30	-.04
		N.I.expert	-.454*	.123	.002	-.77	-.13
		I.expert	.138	.153	.803	-.25	.53
	N.I.expert	lg.L	.275	.121	.109	-.03	.59
		lg.T	.454*	.123	.002	.13	.77
		I.expert	.592*	.189	.011	.10	1.08
	I.expert	lg.L	-.316	.151	.161	-.71	.07
		lg.T	-.138	.153	.803	-.53	.25
		N.I.expert	-.592*	.189	.011	-1.08	-.10

D. Factor Four: Direct vs. Indirect Teaching of Impoliteness

As to the way the impoliteness aspect of language should be taught (Table 8), a significant difference was found in the means of the groups of the study. In other words, their ideas on the way impoliteness should be taught were inconsistent with each other.

TABLE 8
ANOVA RESULTS FOR DIRECT VS INDIRECT TEACHING OF IMPOLITENESS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	3.39	3	1.13	16.29	.000
Within groups	13.13	189	.06		
Total	16.53	192			

Tucky post hoc test indicated that except for the language learners vs non-Iranian experts, and language teachers vs non-Iranian experts comparisons, all the other comparisons depicted significant differences.

TABLE 9
POST-HOC TEST (TUCKY) ON DIRECT VS INDIRECT TEACHING OF IMPOLITENESS

Dependent Variable	(I) code	(J) code	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	lg.L	lg.T	.119*	.04	.01	.01	.22
		N.I.expert	-.009	.09	1.0	-.25	.24
		I.expert	-.709*	.12	.00	-1.02	-.39
	lg.T	lg.L	-.119*	.04	.01	-.22	-.01
		N.I.expert	-.128	.09	.56	-.38	.12
		I.expert	-.828*	.12	.000	-1.14	-.51
	N.I.expert	lg.L	.009	.09	1.00	-.24	.25
		lg.T	.128	.09	.56	-.12	.38
		I.expert	-.700*	.15	.000	-1.08	-.31
	I.expert	lg.L	.709*	.120	.000	.39	1.02
		lg.T	.828*	.122	.000	.51	1.14
		N.I.expert	.700*	.150	.000	.31	1.08

E. Factor Five: The Level of Teaching Impoliteness

Table 10 presents the results of the study for the fifth factor; that is, the level at which the impoliteness aspect of language should be taught. It is evident, based on the ANOVA results, that the groups are significantly different as to their idea concerning this factor.

TABLE 10
ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE LEVEL OF TEACHING IMPOLITENESS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.522	3	.174	5.84	.001
Within groups	5.62	189	.030		
Total	6.15	192			

To see where exactly the differences among the four groups lay, a post hoc test (Tucky) was used. Table 11 indicates the differences. As depicted, the significant differences were found in the following group comparisons: language learners vs. language teachers, and language learners vs. non-Iranian experts.

TABLE 11
POST-HOC TEST (TUCKY) ON THE LEVEL OF TEACHING IMPOLITENESS

Dependent Variable	(I) code	(J) code	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	lg.L	lg.T	-.070*	.026	.039	-.139	-.002
		N.I.expert	-.200*	.063	.009	-.364	-.037
		I.expert	-.160	.078	.177	-.365	.043
	lg.T	lg.L	.070*	.026	.039	.002	.139
		N.I.expert	-.130	.064	.185	-.299	.036
		I.expert	-.090	.079	.674	-.297	.117
	N.I.expert	lg.L	.200*	.063	.009	.037	.364
		lg.T	.130	.064	.185	-.036	.296
		I.expert	.040	.098	.977	-.215	.295
	I.expert	lg.L	.160	.078	.177	-.043	.365
		lg.T	.090	.079	.674	-.117	.297
		N.I.expert	-.040	.098	.977	-.295	.215

F. Factor Six: Teaching Impoliteness to Males or Females?

The sixth factor considered in the study was the issue of gender and impoliteness; that is, whether there should be any difference in teaching the impoliteness aspect of language to different genders. The results of the one-way ANOVA indicated no significant difference in this regard. This means that the four groups held the same idea toward the relationship between gender and impoliteness; that males and females should be treated equally in (not) receiving instruction on impoliteness.

TABLE 12
ANOVA RESULTS FOR TEACHING IMPOLITENESS TO DIFFERENT GENDERS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.63	3	.21	2.45	.06
Within groups	16.26	189	.08		
Total	16.87	192			

G. Factor Seven: Teaching Impoliteness in EFL and ESL Contexts

The last factor of the study centered on the context in which impoliteness could be taught. The results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that the differences were not significant. Table 13 indicates that the significant value is .057 which is a bit larger than what it should be to indicate significance differences. This means that the four groups of the study had,

more or less, similar ideas toward the context of teaching impoliteness. In fact, almost all the participants believed that if the impoliteness aspect of language is to be taught, then context does not make a big difference.

TABLE 13
ANOVA RESULTS FOR TEACHING IMPOLITENESS IN ESL/EFL CONTEXTS

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.30	3	.43	2.89	.057
Within groups	28.39	189	.15		
Total	29.70	192			

V. DISCUSSION

Here in this part, the research question of the study is presented and discussed on the basis of the results of the study.

Research question: How do Iranian EFL learners, teachers, experts and non-Iranian experts view teaching impoliteness in language classes?

To answer this question, each of the factors is explained and discussed according to the ideas of the four groups of the participants.

A. Factor One: The Significance of Impoliteness in Everyday Language

Concerning the overall significance of impoliteness, almost all the four groups were of the idea that impoliteness is part of everyday use of language including the English language. This is consistent with what Mugford (2008) stated; that the world of every language is not always a polite and respectful one. Therefore, language learners must be prepared to be involved in impolite and rude, as well as congenial and social interactions. Despite this general trend toward the importance of impoliteness, the results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that there were some significant differences in their ideas toward this factor as well. The difference was between Iranian experts on the one hand and language learners and teachers on the other hand. Iranian experts were more explicit and consistent in their ideas toward the value of impoliteness, whereas some learners and teachers were more conservative in talking about the value of impoliteness and that was the cause of the significant difference found. Non-Iranian experts were middle of the roaders; not as explicit and consistent as Iranian experts and not as conservative and inconsistent as language learners and teachers on this issue.

B. Factor Two: The Value of Impoliteness as Compared to Politeness

As for the value of politeness in contrast to impoliteness, the study found no significant difference among the four groups. All the four groups almost unanimously agreed to the equal value of politeness and impoliteness.

C. Factor Three: Does Impoliteness Require Instruction?

The study indicated significant differences between the groups in terms of the need for instruction. The significant differences were found between language teachers on the one hand and language learners and Iranian experts on the other hand. There was also a significant difference between Iranian experts and non-Iranian experts. However, language learners and Iranian experts were not significantly different in their ideas about teaching impoliteness and similarly language teachers and non-Iranian experts were of similar ideas in this regard. Language teachers were mostly concerned with the class management. They mostly believed that any instruction of the impoliteness aspect of language may cause chaos and disorder in the class. Furthermore, they stated, it may not be ethically appropriate to teach impoliteness, and even if it is to be taught, just some certain aspects of it should be taught. Non-Iranian experts were of similar idea in this regard, but language learners were somehow diverse on this issue with some believing in instruction and some disagreeing to it. However, most of them believed that instruction is needed. Iranian experts had the same position in this regard, but they were more consistent in their idea about the need for instruction.

D. Factor Four: Direct vs. Indirect Teaching of Impoliteness

Concerning the method of teaching impoliteness, the results of the one-way ANOVA indicated significant differences among the groups. Iranian experts were significantly different from the other three groups. They were mostly of the idea that if impoliteness is to be taught, it should be taught explicitly and directly. Language teachers were also significantly different from the language learners, as teachers were basically against explicit or direct instruction, believing that it can create chaos in the class. Non-Iranian experts like language learners were overall neutral on this point with some agreeing to explicit instruction and some to implicit instruction.

E. Factor Five: Level of Teaching Impoliteness

Concerning the level of proficiency at which impoliteness should be taught, the results indicated significant differences only between language learners on the one hand and language teachers and non-Iranian experts on the other hand. In fact, all the groups believed that if impoliteness is to be taught, higher levels seem more suitable for teaching; that is, students of higher proficiency are better candidates to receive instruction. It seems that the significant differences found were basically related to the fact that language learners didn't believe in the idea of teaching

impoliteness to intermediate and beginning level students, whereas some of the participants in other groups, especially the language teachers and non-Iranian experts, thought that if impoliteness is to be taught, it is better to be taught at different levels.

F. Factor Six: Teaching Impoliteness to Males or Females?

All the four groups of the study unanimously agreed to the fact that males and females should be treated equally in (not) teaching the impoliteness aspect of language. The results of the one-way ANOVA revealed no significant results in this regard.

G. Factor Seven: Teaching Impoliteness in EFL and ESL Contexts

As for the context in which impoliteness may require instruction, the study indicated no significant results among the different groups. Most of the participants regardless of their group membership believed that context is not a determining factor in deciding (not) to teach the impoliteness aspect of language.

VI. CONCLUSION

The following conclusions can be drawn from the study:

Politeness and impoliteness are two aspects of any language which are used in every day speech depending on the context. In other words, they are context oriented. As such, it is a necessity for language learners to have knowledge and consciousness about these two aspects. Although raising students' consciousness about impoliteness aspect of language seems vital to successful communication, as stated by most of the participants, the way to raise this consciousness and the level of proficiency appropriate for consciousness raising are not agreed-upon by different groups of learners, teachers, Iranian experts and non-Iranian experts.

In an Iranian EFL context and due to the specific cultural and religious conditions, it may not be ethical and justifiable to teach the impoliteness aspect of the English language explicitly and directly and in case the rude side of the English language is to be directly taught, it should be done in higher levels of education. Therefore, it seems more ethically appropriate and easier for the Iranian EFL learners to become aware of the impoliteness aspect of the English language through implicit learning and self instruction.

APPENDIX IMPOLITENESS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participant:

Please read the following items and then mark the choice which best matches your perspective. Your answers are only used for research purposes and you will remain anonymous. In the end, the author expresses his heartfelt thanks to you for your honest and sincere cooperation.

Gender: Male ◯ Female ◯
Education level: Freshman ◯ Sophomore ◯ Junior ◯ Senior ◯ M.A. ◯
Age: ………………
The questions have a five-point answering scale. The numbers mean:

Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

1	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught in all levels.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Impoliteness aspect of language has the same significance as the politeness aspect.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught just in high levels.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Impoliteness should be taught just in universities.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Language learners themselves should learn about the impoliteness aspect of language.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Teaching the impoliteness aspect of language or not, makes no difference in learning that language.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Both politeness and impoliteness aspects of language should be taught. But the main focus should be on the politeness aspect.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Politeness aspect of language is more important than the impoliteness aspect.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Teachers should not waste class time by dealing with the impoliteness aspect of language.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Teaching the impoliteness aspect of language will disrupt the order of class.	1	2	3	4	5
11	In being able to communicate in a foreign language just learning the politeness aspect of that language suffice.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught just in intermediate levels.	1	2	3	4	5
13	In foreign language contexts, there is no need to teach impoliteness aspect of language, but in second language contexts, it is a necessity.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Impoliteness aspect of language has not much application in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Teachers should be trained to teach and offer strategies to students for dealing with L2 impoliteness.	1	2	3	4	5
16	There is no need to teach impoliteness aspect of language.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught Just to the male language learners.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught just in beginning levels.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Impoliteness aspect of language is more important than politeness aspect.	1	2	3	4	5
20	In Second language contexts, there is no need to teach impoliteness aspect of language, but in Foreign language contexts, it is a necessity.	1	2	3	4	5

21	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught directly.	1	2	3	4	5
22	In both foreign and second language contexts, the impoliteness aspect of language should be taught.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught Just to the female language learners.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Impoliteness is part of daily language use and language learners need to be prepared to cope with these situations.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Both politeness and impoliteness aspects of language should be taught. But the main focus should be on the impoliteness aspect.	1	2	3	4	5
26	True and real communication in any language involves using both politeness and impoliteness strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Impoliteness aspect of language should be taught just in Secondary schools.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Teaching the impoliteness aspect of language is not in agreement with our cultural norms.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Impoliteness should be taught indirectly.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Impoliteness should be taught since the early stages of language learning in elementary schools.	1	2	3	4	5
31	It depends on teachers' view to teach impoliteness aspect of language or not.	1	2	3	4	5

In the end, if there is any point you need to add, you may use the following space.

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Alireza Ahmadi received his Ph.D. in TEFL from the University of Isfahan in 2008, his MA in TEFL from Shiraz University in 2002 and his BA in English Translation from the University of Allameh Tabatabaei in 2000.

Currently, he is an assistant professor in the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics at Shiraz University, Iran. His main interests include Language Assessment and Second Language Acquisition.

Kamal Heydari Soureshjani received his MA in TEFL from Shiraz University, in 2010 and his BA in English Translation from the University of Shahrekord in 2008.

He is a member of Young Researchers Club at Azad University, Shahrekord Branch, Iran.

Taboo and Non-conventional Content as Attitude and Emotion Sensitive Tool

Yuliya Asotska
Tischner University, Cracow, Poland
Email: julia_asotska@yahoo.com.au

Agnieszka Strzałka
Pedagogical University, Cracow, Poland
Email: astrzalka27@gmail.com

Abstract—**Affect in language learning, understood as an emotional reaction to the subject, learning environment, methods and contents, shows among learners at all levels of advancement and of all age groups. Positive affect, such as a feeling of interest, pleasantness (or usefulness) of tasks and satisfaction with one's performance, results in increased motivation to learn the language, while negative emotions, such as boredom, tension or fear, typically lead to negative attitudes and, as a consequence, low results of learning. As some learners, especially adult ones, tend to conceal their emotional reactions to the learning situation, not always may language teachers recognize the sources of the difficulties they experience. It has been an interest of the authors to study young adults' affective response to an alternative to typical ELT content, which is "safe", "universal", "politically correct" material, in the form of "sensitive", "nonconventional" or even "taboo" topics. Classroom research conducted in an institution of higher education showed increased interest, higher task motivation and active involvement on the part of the students with many years of English learning experience (sometimes fed up with same or similar content) whose teachers decided to use some "off record" themes to practice language skills in their classrooms.**

Index Terms—**taboo topics, non-conventional topics, speaking, emotions in learning process, humanistic approaches, motivation**

I. THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

A. The Role of Student's Attitude to the Learning Situation

Affect in language learning, understood as an emotional reaction to the subject, learning environment, methods and contents, shows among learners at all levels of advancement and of all age groups. As we know from Kraschen, negative attitude can successfully block learning and it is "acquirers with low affective filter [who] seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to input they receive" (Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 183). More recently, Schuman (1999, p. 32) argues, on the basis of "motivation studies, diary studies (Bailley, 1991, Bailey and Ochsner, 1983), and autobiographies (Schuman, 1997) of second language learners, that positive appraisals of the language learning situation (the target language, its speakers and the culture in which it is used, the teacher, the syllabus and the text), (…) enhance language learning and negative appraisals inhibit second language learning".

In this article we would like to focus our attention on the students' appraisal of the materials used in their English lessons, most specifically the topics used for practicing the speaking skill in the classroom.

B. The Role of Emotions in Learning

Emotions as an important element of the process of learning have been stressed by humanistic psychology, which directed our attention to the fact that learners' feeling, not just thinking, is important in the process of learning. Positive affect, such as a feeling of interest, pleasantness (or usefulness) of tasks and satisfaction with one's performance, results in increased motivation to learn the language, while negative emotions, such as boredom, tension or fear, typically lead to negative attitudes and, as a consequence, low results of learning.

It seems equally important for teachers to avoid raising negative emotions in their students, such as fear, apprehension, anxiety, (Oxford, 1999), help reduce the negative affect brought to the class as a result of previous experience, where low-self-esteem can be an example (de Andres, 1999), and seed some positive emotions, which will simply facilitate the learning process (Moskowitz, 1999). We can, of course, rely on the cognitive more – provide clear goals and structure, explain well and give opportunities for practice, thus teaching impeccably but in the "cold" way. Or, we can enter the hot path, where more emotional involvement on both sides will be necessary, where both hemispheres of the brain will be employed to work hard, thus helping each other for better results.

It has been the belief of the authors that students' emotional involvement in the lessons we teach does make a difference. Prior to the research described below we observed that the routine of language learning in formal

circumstances often makes students, except for some highly motivated ones, passive, shy and day-dreaming. As a teacher educator, one of the Authors often heard in-service teachers complain that students are unmotivated, uncooperative, and simply look bored.

II. TABOO AND NON-CONVENTIONAL CONTENT: PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

One way in which emotions can appear in the classroom is by the choice of topic for conversation, or, more globally, the content of the language teaching materials. Conventionally, topics used as language learning vehicles should refer to the students' everyday life experiences, so that personalization is possible, should foster world knowledge and help relate language material to real life. The question arises, to what extent current coursebook topics allow these goals? Thornbury, for example, is rather critical of that kind of content: the coursebooks avoid topics which might stir the students, such as the war, sex, politics while it is these topics that "trigger some lively and language-productive discussions" (Thornbury, 2002, p. 1). He is an ardent supporter of letting the learners "subvert the curriculum by seizing control of the discourse agenda" (ibid) letting them participate in the choice of topics that will appear in the foreign language classroom. Furthermore, it is a well-known issue that in the coursebooks, the topics that are given are quite conventional; the teacher, however, does not have to take the speaking topics only from the coursebook. "One of the best ways to motivate students and encourage them to speak is to ask them which topics they want to speak about. (...) A controversial topic can be an excellent motivation for students to become really involved in a discussion and communicate fluently in English" (Baker and Westrup, 2003, p. 93).

A. The Coursebook Writer Perspective

With all due respect to coursebook writers, who do their best to fill in coursebook pages with "up-to date content" "global issues" "involving tasks" (descriptions often found on coursebooks' back cover), we may observe a limited number of issues appearing in a still growing number of coursebooks available for any age group. As for the character of the typical coursebook content, Rinvolucri (1999) identifies a bland and unengaging "EFL sub-culture" as represented in "the soft, fudgey, sub-journalistic, woman's magaziney world of EFLese course materials" (Thornbury, 2002, p. 2).

Do coursebook writers take affect into consideration? Paradoxically, they do, safe topics are unlikely to insult anybody, offend the students or confuse the teacher. How deeply does, conventional coursebook material, however, go into the students' minds and hearts?

B. The Students' Perspective

How many times, as a language learner have you been asked questions like, Ok,….. Do you like cooking? What is your favourite sport? What are your holiday plans? or Where did you go on holiday last year? Talking about the same things all over again sounds boring, especially if you do not really enjoy the topic at all. Classroom interactions are by definition artificial and serve the purpose of practicing language skills. Students who are adult enough to accept it just tolerate the fact, assuming that its language not content that is important, or that it just has to be this way. But what about affect? How do the students react emotionally to this state of affairs? Are they ever asked what topics they would really liked to talk about in the foreign language? Van Lier (2001) cites evidence that "intrinsic motivation is closely related to the perception of being able to choose and of being somehow in control of one's actions. Actions that are perceived as being externally controlled [on the other hand] have a tendency to reduce intrinsic motivation" (Thornbury, 2002, p. 2). Thornbury adds "It follows that topics that are "externally controlled" will have a similar de-motivating tendency" (ibid). It is our hypothesis, that given the choice, students would go for topics other than those perennially suggested by typical pedagogically – prepared materials.

C. The Teachers' Perspective

With all the ideas of using authentic materials and putting students in the center that teacher hear during their teacher training, it is consistently difficult for teachers to do everything themselves. Teachers definitely appreciate the fact that more and more up-to date materials are offered to them by publishers and simply teach from coursebooks prepared for a given age group. Thornbury (after Johnson) warns again: "Teachers must be aware that commercial materials possess no scientifically or technologically proven powers to teach second languages; more importantly, teachers must look critically at commercial materials to determine their appropriateness for a particular group of students" (ibid, 3).

Recent publications, such as "Teaching unplugged" (Meddings and Thornbury, 2009) appeal to language teachers to adopt a "materials light approach", in which they consider the students needs and abilities first of all and give up ("unplug") teaching from the coursebook at least from time to time. In our project we take a different route, we do prepare materials, which are quite different form the usual everyday ELT content and let the students get engaged in it. If our hypothesis of the positive impact of taboo and non-conventional topics proves true, we would hope for teachers who do not normally risk using them to search for something similar in character, which suits their students best.

III. THE PROJECT

A. Research Project Design

The present study was designed to examine whether students at the FCE, advanced or proficiency levels of English would benefit from discussions on topics which normally cannot be found in their coursebook, based on authentic rather than pedagogical materials and the students' choice. The authors were thus evaluating a priori hypotheses, that taboo and non-conventional topics might work as an attitude and emotion sensitive tool.

The author prepared two lessons: "A kiss is just a kiss" – a taboo lesson and "Adoption" – a non-conventional lesson (see appendix for lesson outlines) and instructed four teachers to conduct them in their classes, to which they expressed their consent. The Authors differentiate between the two following terms: taboo and non-conventional lessons: it is assumed that the *taboo topic* is something that is unusual to talk about, but at the same time consists of some 'taboo'/shocking parts (e.g. talking about 'sex,' 'kissing'). The *non-conventional* lesson, on the other hand, concerns mostly speaking topics that are rather uncommon for discussion lessons in the class (e.g. talking about 'business,' in general English classes, or 'smiling').

The research project was initiated in 2009 and took place at Tischner European University in Cracow, Poland. The sampling of the subjects was done on a convenience mode. The group of 85 students took part in the project**.** All of them had studied English in their schools before coming to Tischner University and all of them studied English with Tischner's tutors for more than one semester.

B. The Tools that We Have Used

Three different surveys were prepared in order to document the study. First we intended to obtain preliminary information on how taboo and non-conventional topics might 'work' during speaking activities, so the pre-intervention survey was to check how important the speaking skill was for students and to recognise the student's attitude towards the discussion topics offered by the coursebook they have worked with. We also wanted to know if the teachers they have had prepared any taboo or non-conventional lessons, or modified coursebook discussion topics in order to make them more interesting for the students. Finally, the role of the first survey was to check which taboo or non-conventional topics might potentially be of interest to our students.

The other two surveys were applied post-interventionally, after each of the taboo and non-conventional topic lessons. The purpose of these two surveys were to find out the attitudes students had and the emotions they experienced in connection with the introduction of this type of content.

C. Results

Pre-intervention survey: students' view on speaking topics and activities

According to the results of the first survey, speaking practice was very important for our students. Almost all of the students agreed that this skill was crucial in learning and practising a foreign language.

Having the coursebook seemed important for our students, although some of them were in a quandary and could not decide whether the coursebook is important for them or not. When the students were asked if the topics in the coursebooks motivate them to speak, the reply was rather – "no, the speaking topics do not motivate us to speak" (49% of students marked the option 'no' and 29% of students marked the option 'neither agree nor disagree'). Only a small number of students (22%) declared that the topics found in their books are interesting. Despite the fact that the students admitted that they like to study from the coursebook, still almost ninety percent of them stated that they want the teacher to give them some additional speaking topics to those that can be found in the book, or at least to adapt some of the speaking topics to their interests and needs.

TOPICS THAT STUDENTS ARE INTERESTED IN

Topic	Percentage
sex trafficking	33%
abortion	41%
alcoholism	38%
organ transplants	26%
masturbation	14%
mistreating animals	25%
hitch-hiking	38%
childhood / toys	34%
drug-addiction	48%
business	42%
women / men	59%
death	31%
body odour / pheromones	21%
quarrelling	38%
history of toilets	38%
smiling	32%
begging	24%
terrorism	53%
clonning and other genetic technologies	39%
gossiping	44%
gay / lesbian rights	44%

Graph 1. Topics that students are interested in and would like to discuss

The students were given a list of taboo and non-conventional topics *(Graph 1)*. The topics on the list the authors invented by themselves or took ideas from Freeman's book. When it comes to the results students' responses disclosed that all the given topics are more or less desired type of content. The topics such as 'women / men', 'terrorism' and others are of interest for the vast majority of participants. However, the smallest percentage of students ticked topics, such as: 'body odour/pheromones' – 21%, and 'masturbation' – 14% of students. This can be connected with the Polish attitude to taboo topics and our conservatism. Talking about masturbation in the class can be a way too shocking for the Polish mentality.

When students were asked why they would like to talk about all the topics from the list *(Graph 1)*, we got the following answers: because they are "up-to-date and they are important in our everyday life". Some of the students claimed that they already know everything about the topics that they have covered from their coursebooks, however, they want to listen to others' opinions on the 'difficult' topics and they would like to learn new vocabulary connected with the unusual topics. At the same time, 67% of participants wrote that taboo and non-conventional topics are "interesting to talk about as there are many aspects to discuss"; "they are funny" and even "may cause quarrelling between the students", which need not be a negative feature in the class as long as it is properly managed. We know well that when students quarrel and try to prove their point, the speaking task engages them and creates a real life situation in the classroom.

Post intervention surveys: attitudes to non-conventional and taboo content

The second and the third surveys were applied after the two lessons, one based on a taboo and another on a non-conventional topic.

'A Kiss is just a Kiss'. The topic of kissing is not a very common topic covered in the class, probably that is why 95% of students liked this lesson, while 76% of all participants would like to have such lesson once again in the future. This lesson aroused only positive feelings in our students; most of the students claimed they felt "relaxed", "comfortable with the topic" and simply "good". The great majority of participants stated that they "wanted to laugh" and that they "wanted to speak", which was crucial. Sixty four percent of students wrote that the topic was interesting and that they wanted to talk to others and get to know their opinion. Only one percent of students wrote that "the topic was boring" and two percent claimed that they "did not feel comfortable with the topic". However, it must be noted here that four percent of the students who said they had not spoken in the lesson explained it with the fact that "many other students were talking" and they "did not get the chance for their opinion". The positive and pleasant atmosphere that was influenced by the topic made the students feel comfortable and, confident; they wanted to speak and to share their opinion with others.

'Adoption'. As in the case of the previous lesson, the lesson about adoption was also enjoyed by a large number of students. Only a small minority of students (9%) did not like the lesson and felt uncomfortable with this topic. By and large, all the participants felt good, relaxed and comfortable with the topic. Seventy eight percent of students wanted to speak not only because this was a new topic but also because they found the topic interesting. Also, it must be noted

that in this lesson not everyone wanted to laugh, which is understandable, as the topic of adoption is sad and tragic in some way. Despite the fact that this topic is difficult to talk about and perhaps personal, as some of students have noted, still 65% of students want to cover this topic once again in the future because they found it "unusual", "important" and the activities "interesting."

IV. CONCLUSION

A. How does the Attitude of Students Change?

The majority of the respondents said before the intervention that they had talked about the same topics over and over again. When our learners become more and more proficient in English, they want to practise the new acquired vocabulary, grammar structures; however, the topics from the coursebook do not give them total freedom in what they want to say - "I don't want to speak about the topics that I have been doing all the time for the last ten years", said one of the students. Without doubt the topics that are given in the coursebooks are essential for our learners, however, as Klinger (1999) observes, "learners are curious about want to learn about and want to talk about events and items not only in their immediate social sphere and personal lives" (Porcaro, 2004, p. 39). They are interested in more profound topics, topics that relate to larger issues, for example, birth, death, good, evil, etc (Porcaro, 2004).

The research showed us that when we introduce 'unusual' topics into the classroom our students become more active; they want to participate in conversation and not only share their opinions but also listen to others. Students got a chance to speak on topics not only "seldom used" but "really interesting" , "connected with society and our daily life", "funny, strange and similar to the topics you discuss with your friends", which they appreciated. Another thing mentioned was that "they gave a chance to practice very useful vocabulary".

B. What Happens to Emotions?

First off all, they appear openly in the classroom. Almost everyone is moved, interested by the very fact of something new and out-of-ordinary in the language classroom. Finally, something to talk about. The difference between talking in the language classrooms and talking in real life is that we in the former we mainly answer the questions asked by the teacher, seldom ask them ourselves, and we discuss "hot" topics which the course book has suggested for the day, often because it matched the grammar/vocabulary plan. So normally, we can say students stay emotionally uninvolved.

As Freeman (2003, p. 3) says, taboo and non-conventional topics "stir up controversy and impassioned feelings", when students feel that they have something new to say, they automatically become confident, relaxed, and they feel a desire to talk with their friends. This changes the classroom atmosphere towards a more natural way of communication, as if the learners were speaking outside the pressures of the classroom.

On the basis of the data obtained in this research project it can be observed that taboo or non-conventional topics for speaking do encourage students to speak. In particular, they arouse positive feelings in our students and make them interested in the lesson. Obviously, not all unusual topics make learners' feel good. As the research shows, the more serious the topic that is introduced (as in the example of Adoption), the more tension our students feel. The feeling of tension, however, does not appear in the negative sense here, it makes students show their real emotions and to share their real experience with others in a natural way.

Non-conventional and taboo topics seem to be linked with our students' willingness to speak and actively participate in the lesson. Advanced language learners, normally flooded with 'safe' speaking topics from the coursebooks who participated in the study appreciated the non-conventional and taboo content. The following quotations of students: *"In my opinion these topics are more interesting than "normal" ones. I would really love to join discussion about drug-addiction or something because it would improve my language, etc."* and *"They are unusual topics that we don't use during the lesson. They are much more interesting and connected with society and our daily life"* show that students are eager to discuss topics from everyday life, topics which they hear in the news and that are mentioned by their colleagues.

Hot topics in the classroom arouse positive attitude and generate positive emotions, even shy, not talkative students want to prove their opinion which trigger fruitful discussions during lessons. Students feel relaxed, they want to laugh, to be audible by others, etc. All these aroused emotions make our lessons enjoyable and unforgettable.

To conclude, topics such as, 'sex', 'torture', 'organ transplants', 'politicians', etc. are without doubt "hot topics". People see and hear different stories about them daily on the front pages of our newspapers, magazines, and television newscasts. These serious topics, "with so many angles to consider and viewpoints to integrate, are of special interest to our learners as they learn to live in a world that is very often filled with contradictions" (Freeman, 2005:vii). It is an indisputable fact that if we want to help our learners to use their second language freely, with meaning and interest, the presentation of non-conventional or taboo topics can be highly productive as they often generate high levels of interest and involvement in the learners.

APPENDIX

'A KISS IS JUST A KISS'

The first activity used was to make students guess the topic. Students were given five quotations that were told by well known people and they had to guess which key word goes to each of these sentences. Of course, the key word was

'a kiss'. When students guessed the main topic, on the interactive board they saw many pictures of kissing (e.g. a kiss from the cartoon, a kiss of a mother and a child, a kiss between animals) and they had to think which picture was the best to choose for the post campaign in 'Kissing Festival', later there came the discussion why the chosen pictures were the best. In the third activity the students were given the survey 'Kissing Quiz' which checks their knowledge of the topic. After the survey the teacher divided students into two groups. After the division, the teacher gave each group questions and asked them to discuss these questions, in the end students and the teacher discussed these questions together. The title of another exercise was 'How to kiss Passionately'. Students were given cards with the steps of how to kiss someone passionately. While watching a taboo video students had to rearrange these cards in the correct order.

'ADOPTION'

For the beginning the teacher asked students to write down all of the different words they associated with the word ADOPTION. Next, students shared their words with their partner and talked about them. As the next step, students were divided into groups and given cards with questions about adoption which they discussed. In the third exercise students were shown pictures of famous people (like Madonna, Nicole Kidman, Angelina Jolie, etc.) and they discussed questions connected with the life of those famous stars. The last exercise was a role-play. Students worked in groups of threes and they had to play their role (a pop-star who wants to adopt a child; a boss of an African orphanage; a child in an African orphanage).

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Yuliya Asotska is currently doing a PhD in linguistic and methodology at Pedagogical University in Cracow. In 2009 she wrote her MA thesis in methodology of foreign language teaching at Pedagogical University in Cracow. She has taught English courses for the last four years at Tischner University in Cracow.

Agnieszka Strzałka, PhD is an assistant proffessor at the Pedagogical University in Cracow, where she teaches Methodology of Teaching FL courses, Sociolinguistics and assists in MA projects. She has lectured in Spain, Portugal, Austria and Turkey. As a teacher of general and Business English she has been active since 1993. Her research interests include intercultural communication, affect in language learning and teaching and adult education.

The Effects of Acquaintanceship with the Interviewers and the Interviewees' Sex on Oral Interview as a Test Technique in EFL Context

Mohiadin Amjadian
Kurdistan Medical University, Sanandaj, Iran
Email: mohiadin72@yahoo.com

Saman Ebadi
Allameh Tabatai'e University, Tehran, Iran
Email:Samanebadi@gmail.com

Abstract—This study explored the possible relationship between the acquaintanceship of the interviewees with the interviewers, the interviewees' gender and their oral performance in oral language interviews as a test technique in L2 situations. Among 117 participants of the study ,60 university students were chosen based on Michigan test of language proficiency and were randomly assigned into groups (A and B) of familiar and unfamiliar with the interviewer including both males and females. They were interviewed using IELTS interview framework with some modifications, 30 with familiar interviewer and 30 with unfamiliar one. The results of the study indicated that the familiarity and unfamiliarity of the interviewee with the interviewers might not affect the oral performance (scores) of the subjects .The results also evidenced that the effect of the candidates' gender was significant in their scores with the males outperforming the females. This can be due to the sex of the interviewers, all of whom were males for both male and female groups. Although the relationship between sex and oral performance was significant, the interaction effect of the candidates' sex and their acquaintanceship with the test – givers on the oral performance of the subjects was not so significant. The findings of this study have some implications for both speaking instruction and assessment of oral proficiency in EFL context.

Index Terms—oral interview, variation, oral performance, acquaintanceship

I. INTRODUCTION

Testing the language proficiency, especially oral performance, is one of the most complicated issues in the literature of language testing. There are many factors, which might affect different tests of oral proficiency in language testing in EF /SL contexts. Among different factors, which might affect oral performance of the learners, are the effect of the test-givers and test-takers' characteristics on their performance on such tests (Kunnan, 1995; O'Sul1ivan 2002). Some studies have been conducted on the effects of the test givers and test-takers' characteristics such as education level, social status, age, sex and personality on oral performance of different candidates (O' Loughlin 2002; O'Sul1ivan and Porter 1995; Porter and Shen 1991; Farhadi 1982). These studies have examined the effects of multiple background characteristics on language test performance. For example, Farhadi (1982) found significant relationship between sex, university status, academic major and nationality and the subjects' performance on several measures of language ability. Sullivan (2002) explored the possible effect of pair-task performance of test-takers' familiarity with their partner and concludes that learners vary in their oral performance when interacting with familiar or unfamiliar speakers. Gender, social status and interaction style (male / female) were the factors studied in Porter and Shen (1991). Here, fourteen men and fourteen women of various nationalities were interviewed by two interviewers, one male and one female. The results of the research showed no significant difference in the results of the status variable but the gender was significant with achieving higher scores by female interviewers.

What makes the present study different from other studies done in this area is that, unlike other studies (Porter 1991b; O'Loughlin 2002; O'Sullivan 2002) in which the sex of the interviewers and its possible effects on the interviewees' oral performance was studied, here, the sex of the interviewees and also its possible relationship with the acquaintanceship with the interviewer was taken into consideration. Moreover, the number of the subjects (60 university student) is much more than the number of subjects in the other studies (e.g, 32 in O'Sullivan 2002, 16 in O'Loughlin 2002 and 13 in Porter 1991a). This increase in the number of the subjects would have positive effects on the reliability and validity of the outcomes. In this study, the researchers tried to investigate the effect of acquaintanceship of test-takers with test-givers on their oral performance, on one hand, and the interaction effect between this variable and the sex of the test-takers on their performance on the other. O'Sullivan (2000) operationalized familiarity with interviewer as "familiar interviewer is, preferably their own professors or classmates who have been studying in the same class, at least, since

the last two years.

The purpose of the study was to clarify the effects of these two variables on the oral performance of learners in oral language tests in L2 contexts. The probable relationships between these variables have been investigated using IELTS interview framework in order to help the L2 language teachers to find the most appropriate ways of testing speaking skill and getting familiar with possible effects of some social variables like sex, familiarity and unfamiliarity which might influence the test takers' performance in speaking tests among Iranian learners. In fact, knowing and predicting the possible effects of such variables in the oral performance of the L2 learners would result in administrating a more reliable and valid test of oral proficiency. The following research questions guided the current study:

1. Does acquaintanceship with the test giver (interviewer) affect the performance of the test- takers (interviewees) in an L2 interview situation?

2. Is there any relationship between the sex of the test-takers (L2 learners) and their oral performance in an interview situation?

3. Is there any interaction effect between the candidates' gender and their acquaintanceship with the test-givers on the oral performance of L2 learners in an interview as a test technique?

In order to come up with scientific results, the researchers has selected the following null hypotheses based on the research questions:

$N0_1$: The Acquaintanceship with the test-giver does not affect the oral performance of the test-takers in an L2 interview situation.

$N0_2$: There is no significant relationship between the sex of the test-takers (L2 learners) and their oral performance in an interview situation.

$N0_3$: there is no significant interaction effect between the candidates' gender and their acquaintanceship with the test givers on the oral performance of the L2 learners in an interview situation.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Methods of Testing Speaking (Oral language)

Oral language in the language classrooms is the most problematic of all the skills to assess. It involves the combination of dimensions that are not necessarily correlated and do not lend themselves well to objective testing, so that a performance may get 7.0 as far as its appropriacy is concerned but get 5.0 in terms of accuracy (Baker ,1989). There seems, not yet, to have clear answers to questions about the criteria of testing speaking and weighting the factors which might be considered to affect this skill. A speaker might produce all the sounds correctly but not make any sense or have great difficulty with phonology and grammar and yet be able to get the message across (Heaton, 1990). Speaking ability can be tested in two ways, directly and indirectly (Farhady, Jafarpoor, Birjandy, 1995). Indirect testing of speaking is carried out through quasi-realistic activities and the direct one is achieved through activities that try to duplicate as closely as possible the setting of a real life situation. Common indirect measures of speaking ability include, picture description, performing commands, retelling stories and role plays. In these tasks, we want the subjects to elicit their language knowledge indirectly and through performing different tasks. The second group of oral performance testing includes interviews and short talks, in which we want the testees to elicit their language knowledge directly and through putting them in real life language settings. Among these groups of speaking techniques oral interviews were used to assess the participants' oral performance in this study.

Oral Interviews as a Test Technique

Interviews are defined as direct conversations between an investigator and an individual or a group of individuals in order to gather information (Longman Dictionary of Applied linguistics 1992). They are situations in which the test-taker and the test-givers carry on a conversation. The advantage of an interview is that, it attempts to approximate a conversation situation. How and in what ways we can prepare tests of interview to assess oral language performance of the learners, is not our concern in the study. As interview seems to be the most valid direct type of speaking tests and appears to offer a realistic means of estimating the overall speaking ability of the learners in a natural speech situation (Farhady, Jafarpoor, BiIjandy; 1995), we were dealing with the effects of external factors which might influence the interview and its results as an oral performance test in this study. Among these factors, is the effect of the interviewers' characteristics like sex, age and acquaintanceship with the candidates on the subjects' oral performance in tests of interview (Weir 1993). Generally speaking, interviews are conducted in different formats among which are IELTS and interviews based on tasks.

The assessment in IELTS speaking takes into account evidence of communicative strategies and appropriate and flexible use of grammar and vocabulary (O'loughlin, 2002). IELTS provides a profile of candidates ability to use English. Candidates receive scores on a band scale from 1 to 9. Another kind of interview which is used for evaluating the oral performance of L2 learners is interview based on tasks or the personal information exchange (PIE) task, which requires the candidates to speak to their partner about a topic relating to their university life. An example of this is: "please tell your partner what were your first thoughts when you started at university" (O'sullivan, 2002).

B. Holistic vs. Analytical Scoring of Speaking Skill

As Madsen (1983) states, on a speaking test, getting the students to say something appropriate is only half the job and

the scoring procedure is equally challenging. In fact, the complex task of scoring writing composition is the only thing that might match the challenge of scoring a speaking test. The choice of scoring system tends to depend on one of two things: The first one is that, how well trained the rater is to evaluate oral communication and what factors are chosen to be evaluated (Madsen 1983). Generally speaking, the oral language interviews are scored holistic1y or analytically. In both methods, it is better to record the interviews and marking (scoring) should be done by more than one rater in order to check the reliability of the scores given to the interviewees. Oral performance of the candidates can be assessed in two different ways: Holistic and analytic.

A scoring procedure in which an overall impression of the rater, according to which the interviewee receives "excellent" "good" "fail" and "poor" or 'pass / fail' is called a subjective or holistic scoring. While, in an analytical or objective scoring, the rater rates the interviewees" performance separately on scales that pertain to accent, structure, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. The advantage of holistic grading as Madsen (1983) and Hughes (2003) state is that, it concentrates on communication while not overlooking the components of speech and it is a rapid way of scoring. The limitation is that, a great number of teachers not skillful in analyzing speech, find it confusing to evaluate so many things simultaneously.

In analytical or objective scoring, the speaking items based on the right-wrong arrangement for low level test-takers and partial credit for upper levels, are given marks and then the total sum of the marks will be the speaking test score. In right-wrong system the items are supposed to be right or wrong and get 0 or 1 point. In partial credit system, the test-taker allows 2 points for fully correct answers, 1 for partially correct answers and 0 for unaccepted or unintelligible answers (Underhill 1987). Analytic or objectified scoring is a satisfactory way to evaluate speaking ability, because it can yield more consistent and reliable scores. On the other hand, it might neglect the main goal of speaking, communication, and pays more attention to less important components of speech like grammar, accent etc. In this study, the researchers has tried to develop a local scoring system for L2 learners which have benefited the partial credit system and it uses both holistic and analytic measures to score the candidates' performances.

C. Familiarity and Gender in Oral Interviews

A number of researchers distinguish between test features which are irrelevant to the ability which is being measured and those which are relevant to that ability (Porter and Shen Shu Hung, 1991; O'sullivan, 1995; O'sullivan and Porter, 1995; O'Sullivan 2000). **O'** Sullivan' s (2002) study explored the possible effect of pair-task performance of test-takers' familiarity with their partner and concludes that learners vary in their oral performance when interacting with familiar or unfamiliar speakers. He did the research with 32 Japanese students and maintained that the results might not be generelizable to other contexts. In another study, O' Sullivan (2000) investigated the effect of gender on oral proficiency interview performance. Twelve Japanese learners were interviewed, once by a man and once by a woman. Video tapes of these interactions were scored by trained examiners. Comparisons of the scores indicated that, in all but one case the learners performed better when interviewed by a woman, regardless of the sex of the learners. Analysis of the learners' interviews indicated systematic gender differences, with producing more accurate language by the females. Porter (1991 a) examined the oral performance of thirteen Arab learners by known and unknown interviewers and found no evidence to support his hypothesized interlocutor-acquaintanceship effect. In fact, acquaintanceship with the interviewers seemed not to play a significant role in the candidates' performances. Cholewka (1997) investigated the linguistic behavior of adult second language learners in an oral interview situation. The subjects in this study were six ESL learners (one female and five male) with the same first language. An oral interview conducted twice with a four-day interval, by two different interviewers. The findings of the study revealed that, in unfamiliar setting in an oral interview situation with unknown interlocutors, ESL learners revert to their native language and produce lower level of oral proficiency in the test. This finding suggests that, a task in an unfamiliar real-life situation may elicit significantly higher proportion of language transfer errors than the same task performed in a familiar environment.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since, in this study more than one independent variable were involved; acquaintanceship and gender, the hypotheses were investigated in a factorial design and through two-way ANOVA procedures which show not only the main effects of two independent variables on the dependent variable but also their possible interaction effect.

A. Participants

The participants of this study included 117 Iranian (B.A) English university students. They were studying at seventh and eighth semesters. A Michigan general proficiency test was used to screen the required number of the candidates who were supposed to take part in the main procedure of the study, oral interviews. Among them, 60 subjects who were supposed to be almost at the same level of general language proficiency were selected; those with the scores between - 1.2 SD and + 1.2 SD from the mean score. Then, they were randomly divided into two equal groups of 30, each one consisting of both males and females. In fact, there were four groups of almost 15 in the study: 1. Familiar with the interviewer, female candidates, 2. Familiar with the interviewer, male candidates, 3.Unfamiliar with the interviewer, female candidates and 4. Unfamiliar with the interviewer, male candidates.

B. Instrumentation

The following instrumentations were used to tap into the variables at hand in the study:

1. Oral Interview (lELTS)

The kind of oral interview framework used here to measure the candidates' oral production was the oral interview section of the IELTS (the International English language Testing System). It is a four-skill test employed in the selection of prospective non-native speakers of English to universities in such countries as Canada and the UK (O'Loughlin 2002). The version of the speaking sub-test lasts between 10-15 minutes but it took between 15-20 minutes in this study, because in order to get a natural sample of speech, some parts of the official interview were modified; a picture description was used in the third phase of the interview in order to motivate the candidates speak as much as possible. This modification is justified through what Weir (1993) states, "The flexibility of the interview is a major strength; The interview can be modified in terms of the pace, scope and level of the interaction" (P. 56). Choosing IELTS as a test instrument made the researchers able to test their performances through objective scores. Due to not having access to the IELTS speaking scoring scale, a local scoring scale was developed by the researchers to assess the final interviews.

2. Local Scoring Scale

To assess the oral interviews, some reliable scoring scales were needed. Since the IEL TS oral interview scoring system is not public, the researchers developed a scoring system using some international and local scoring systems like FCE and ALIGU tests. The rubric, the researchers developed in this study, is not a task -specific one and it can be used to assess different oral tasks given to the subjects. On the other hand, the researchers tried to develop a speaking scale which is suitable for S/FL testing situations and can be used by the ordinary teachers and practitioners. It does not require trained raters and it is supposed, based on the pilot study results, to be valid and reliable. To test its reliability and validity, one hundred candidates' oral performances were, firstly, rated by two qualified teachers holistically and then for the second time their performances were rated using the developed local scoring scale. Then, the correlation of the two sets of scores were calculated and the researchers found an acceptable correlation (0.79) between the two measures(scores), therefore, the researchers were convinced that the scoring scale benefits from an acceptable degree of inter-rater reliability. On the other hand, it is a combination of holistic and analytic scales together. In fact, in this rubric, conducting holistic and analytic scoring of the oral performance separately at two different times was not required. It is holistic, because it includes well defined levels for each component of the speaking skill, fluency, accuracy, vocabulary, pronunciation and gives a general impression of the oral performance targets to the rater or teacher. However, it is supposed to be analytic and objective, because in addition to having well and clearly defined levels, each level is given a numerical value instead of giving them nominal values like fair, good, adequate and sum of these numerical values for various components is the subjects' total score based on which he/she is ranked in a group of subjects taking oral language interview as a test. Each component is assessed from 1 to 5 and the whole speaking skill, including five components, is assessed from 1 to 25. (see Appendix A for more details).

3. Michigan Test

A general language proficiency test was required to screen the qualified subjects to take part in the oral interviews. A Michigan Test (1990) including 90 multiple-choice items of vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension, was given to 117 English university students for 70 minutes to accomplish in order to come up with a homogeneous number of subjects. Then, after scoring the test, 60 subjects were selected to take part in the interviews, those between 1.2 SD above and below the mean score.

IV. PROCEDURES

At the outset of the study, a Michigan Test of language proficiency was given to 117 English university students to screen a qualified number of the subjects to take part in the oral interviews. Sixty subjects, males and females, were selected among those whose scores were between 1.2 SD above or below the mean score. They were ranked from the highest score to the lowest and they were divided into two equal groups of thirty, odds for group A and evens for group B. The number of males and females were almost equal for both groups. Group A, by chance, was chosen to be interviewed by an unfamiliar interviewer, who was the researchers himself, and group B was chosen to be interviewed by familiar interviewers, who were the subjects' classmates or professors chosen by the candidates themselves and they were with each other, at least, for the last two years. Of course, the familiar interviewers took part in a four-hour session of TTC in order to be made familiar with the IELTS oral interview framework and to conduct the interviews consistently and skill fully over various subjects. After conducting the interviews, they were tape recorded and finally they were rated by a trained rater twice with an interval time (one week) using a local rating scale (see Appendix A for the scale). Intra-rater reliability of the two sets of scores was calculated through correlational procedures and a correlation degree of 0.83 convinced the researchers that the rating system was reliable. The mean of the two scores as their final score for both groups were investigated, using two-way ANOV A procedures, in order to find possible relationships between the independent variables and the scores. Moreover, the scores for the different parts of the spoken data based on the scale including pronunciation, fluency, accuracy, comprehensibility and vocabulary, for each candidate's performance were taken out. Then, using factorial ANOVA, the performances of the candidates in each group, male and female familiar with the interviewer and male and female unfamiliar with the interviewer, were compared and contrasted.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

To begin to investigate the link among the variables, the tape-recorded interviews were scored to study the candidates' performances through their raw scores. The data gathered through the scores given to the candidates were analyzed using two-way ANOVA procedure with follow up mean score calculations to indicate any possible relationships between the variables. In order to investigate the possible relationship between the acquaintanceship of the interviewees with the interviewer and the candidates' oral performance in research question 1, a two-way ANOVA procedure was run at significance level of et. = 0.05. The results (table 1) shows that, although there is a trend that the familiar groups' mean score is higher (Table 2), the relationship is not so significant at this level (The amount of observed F does not exceed the critical F 2.144 < 4.02), to reject this null hypothesis. Put another way, we can say that there is not a significant relationship between these two variables and familiarity or unfamiliarity with the interviewer has not influenced the oral performance of the subjects in both groups. This result, unlike that of O'Sullivans' (2002) which claims that there is a significant relationship between the acquaintanceship with the interviewer and the subjects' oral performance in oral language interviews, is in line with Porter's (1991 a) study in which the effects of familiarity and unfamiliarity with the interviewer was investigated and no evidence was found to show a significant effect.

The Results are briefed as follows:

TABLE (1)
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS
Dependent Variable: Test Scores (Oral Interview Scores)

Source	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Eta Squared
Corrected model	105.906	3	35.302	3.696	.017	.165
Intercept	14877.214	1	14877.214	1557.743	.000	.965
Acquaintanceship	20.479	1	20.479	2.144	.149	.37
Sex of candidate s	66.699	1	66.699	6.984	.11	.111
Acquaintanceship*sex	7.842	1	7.842	.821	.369	.014
Error	534.828	56	9.550			
Total	15556.000	60				
Corrected total	640.733	59				

a R Squared= 165 (Adjusted R Squared=121)

LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES
Dependent Variable: Scores

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.737	3	56	.170

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a Design: intercept +ACQAUAIN+SEX+ACQAUAIN*SEX

To investigate the second hypothesis, the possible relationship between the sex of the subjects and their oral performance in oral language interviews, a two-way ANOV A was run at the significance level of $a = 0.05$ in SPSS. Based on the results in table (1), the researchers could claim that the relationship between these two variables was significant (Observed F exceeds Critical F 6.94 > 4.02), therefore, null hypothesis two was rejected. In fact, we can claim that there is a significant relationship between the sex of the subjects and their oral performance. To investigate whether the male or female group outperformed in this respect, the groups' mean scores were calculated and it showed that the males with a mean score of 17.33 outperformed the females with a mean score of 14.75. The results were briefed as follows:

TABLE 2 (MEAN SCORES)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
Dependent Variable: Scores

Acquaintanceship	gender	mean	Std. Deviation	N
Familiar	Male	17.2000	3.5295	15
	Female	15.8000	3.1214	15
	Total	16.5000	3.3502	30
Unfamiliar	Male	17.5000	3.5032	14
	Female	13.8889	2.3736	16
	Total	15.3333	3.3460	30
Total	Male	17.3333	3.4530	29
	Female	14.7576	2.8617	31
	Total	15.9167	3.3713	60

To delve into the investigation of the third hypothesis, the possible relationship between any probable interaction effect of the sex of the subjects and their acquaintanceship with the interviewers on their oral performance, a two-way ANOVA was run at the significance level of $a = 0.05$. The results in table (1) indicated that there was not a significant relationship between them (Observed F is smaller than Critical F, 621 < 3.17). In other words, this null hypothesis is not rejected at this significance level. It can be claimed that the effect of sex, which was significant alone, has been moderated by effect of acquaintanceship with the test-givers. However, females' performance in unfamiliar group was

lower than that of familiar group, but the males' performance in both groups, familiar and unfamiliar, was, to some extent, similar. It can be explained by the fact that, the females were under the influence of two different factors at the same time, the sex of the interviewer and unfamiliarity with the interviewer in the unfamiliar group, while the sex of the interviewers (all males), might have been a help to the males' performance. The mean differences in the performances of the groups were briefed in the following graph:

Mean Graph for (Un/familiar & Fe/male groups)
Estimated Marginal Means of Scores

Acquaintanceship
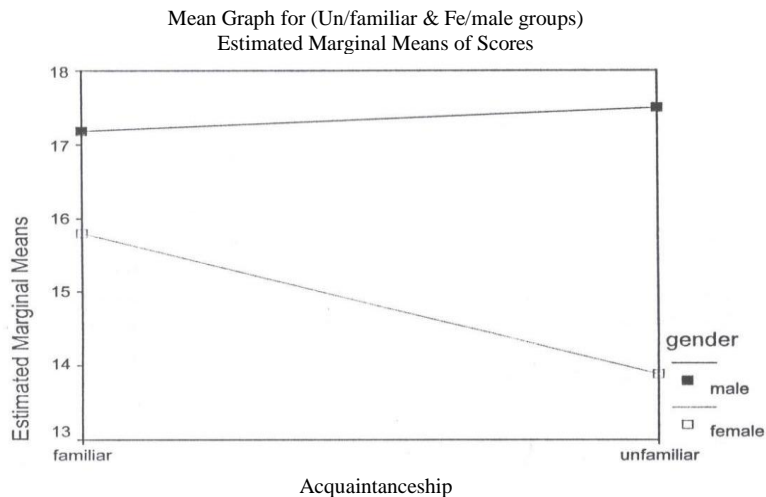
VI. DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results for the first hypothesis, which stated that there was not a significant difference in the performance of the familiar group and unfamiliar one, is in line with the findings of Porter (1991a) but it rejects the findings of O'Sul1ivan (2002) which stated that " learners vary In their oral performance when interacting with familiar or unfamiliar speaker". The reason might be the cultural burden of the term familiarity and unfamiliarity, which is different among various L2 learners, so that L2 learners from different cultural backgrounds perform differently in unfamiliar and familiar settings. Moreover, what seems to differentiate L2 learners' performances seriously, is their language proficiency knowledge which has been controlled through homogenizing the candidates' proficiency level in this study.

The findings of the second hypothesis are in line with the findings of most of the other studies (Buckingham, 1997, O'Sul1ivan, 2000 and Porter and Shen 1991) in which the effect of both interviewers and interviewees' gender on the candidates' performances have been emphasized. The males' outperformance in the interviews is justified through the interviewers' gender. In fact, all of the interviewers were males and as Buckingham (1997) states "female interviewees achieve higher scores when interviewed by a woman and the male interviewees perform better when interviewed by a man". Moreover, the cultural background of the interviewees in the research area might be another reason why the females did worse than the males in the unfamiliar setting.

The investigation of the third hypothesis showed no evidence of interaction effect of gender and acquaintanceship on the candidates' performance. Although, the gender was found to be effective on the candidates' performances, it seems that acquaintanceship with the test-givers has moderated its effect, so that their interaction effect was not significant.

The results of the study are believed to have implications for second language pedagogy in two different ways: second language teaching and second language testing.

In the area of language teaching, being familiar with the learners without knowing about their needs might not help the teachers to be successful in teaching oral skills. In fact, teachers' familiarity with his/her learners has a two-fold role in teaching oral skills. It may facilitate the fluency of their speech, due to decreasing psychological barriers on one hand, and increase inaccuracies in their speech on the other. The more the learners are free to take risks, the more they might make grammatical mistakes. Moreover, it might develop a kind of informal spoken language rather than standard dialect of the language as shown in the linguistic variant analysis.

This study is also relevant to language teaching in other ways. Class group discussions might be more useful, if the teacher tries to use implications of such researches in choosing pair-work oral tasks and see how the learners might act in oral discussion groups when they are familiar (friend) with their partners and when they are unfamiliar with each other. Outperforming the males from the females in their oral performance, which might be due to using male interviewers in both groups, shown that the sex of the teachers might be a factor to oral language teaching in which the learners achieve high scores when paired with the interviewer of the same gender (Buckingham, 1997).

As this study has been done in the area of oral language assessment and the possible effect of both test-givers and candidates' characteristics on the candidates' performance, it is believed that it would have more implications in the area of L2 language testing. Considering the difficulty of taking oral proficiency tests, investigating the effects of acquaintanceship of the interviewees with the interviewers on an oral interview test helps both educators and teachers to

be more aware of the test-takers' personality effects on the results of an oral interview test and try to diminish the bias effects of such variables in such tests. Moreover, the effect of gender of interviewers and interviewees, although not a clear-cut one, on the oral performance of the candidates should be taken into consideration, especially in our settings in which gender plays a great role in the social behavior of the learners. One way of decreasing the effect of sex on the oral performance of the test-takers in L2 language testing situations is to pair the same gender together in oral interviews as tests of language. This is consistent with recent thinking in the fields of both gender studies and applied linguistics suggesting that gender competes with other aspects of an individuals' social identity in a fluid and dynamic fashion (O'Loughlin , 2002).

Which the results of this study may not be readily generalizable to other contexts, it suggests that a test-candidate's degree of acquaintanceship with his or her interlocutor as well as the sameness of the sex of the interviewer with the interviewees might have, to some extent, predictable effects on the candidates' performance in L2 settings.

Moreover, in important, large-scale oral interviews like oral interviews of entrance examinations of universities in postgraduate levels (M.A & Ph.D), the results of such studies, might help the administrators in how to choose interviewers for such interviews and what to do in order to diminish the effects of personality factors of the interviewers on the results of these oral tests. The last but not the least implication of the study in the area of language testing is the use of the local scale (see appendix A) developed by the researchers for scoring oral proficiency test in the universities, language institutes and schools. It has been validated and it does not need skillful and trained raters. In fact, it has been localized for Iranian teachers and students.

APPENDIX A

How to assess speaking skill in S/F L testing contexts

Oral assessment is one of the controversial issues in S/F L testing contexts. Different ways have been suggested to assess oral language among which are, role-plays, retelling stories, picture description and oral interviews. These are the ways, we trigger the subjects to speak out, but how to score or rank them based on their performance is another problem.

To come to an academic solution, some rubrics (scales) have been presented by various researchers. Rubrics, scoring guidelines, are terms that refer to the guides used to score subjects' performance in a reliable, fair and valid manner. The researchers can use different types of scales to document oral performance of the subjects for example, numerical scales such as those varying from 1 to 10, qualitative one, which assigns words to the various levels of performance like inadequate, adequate and excellent to clarify the subjects' oral performance. Sometimes simple checklists are used to document the presence or absence of a variety of behaviors and then the general performance is scored.

Technically, the rubrics should have the following characteristics, if they are to yield consistent scores:

1. Continuous: the degree of difference between a 5 and 4 levels should be the same as between 1 and 2 levels.

2. Parallel: Similar language should be used to describe each level of the performance.

3. Coherent: The rubric must focus on the same achievement target throughout the whole assessment process. For example if the purpose of the performance assessment is to measure organization in writing or speaking, then each point on the rubric must be related to different digress of organization not factual accuracy or creativity.

4. Highly descriptive: the rubric should describe and clarify each level of performance in order to help teachers and raters recognize the salient features of each level.

5. Validity: what is scored should be what is central to performance not what is easy to see or score. They should reduce the likelihood of biased judgments of subjects' work.

6. Reliability: A reliable performance assessment rubric should enables: a. Several judges to rate a subject's performance on a specific task to assign the same score or, b. Each judge should be able to rate or score the same performance in different times, giving consistent scores.

The rubric, the researcher has developed in this study, is not a task-specific one and it can be used within different oral tasks, given to the subjects. Due to some limitations the rubrics for native speakers of language have like high standards and the need for native language raters, the researcher has tried to develop a scale which is more suitable for S/F L situations and can be used by English language teachers and non-native raters and practitioners. It does not need trained raters and it has been validated through administrating by two skillful raters who scored the oral performance of 100 Iranian English university student using the rubric. In fact an inter-rater reliability was accounted using spearman correlation and the results showed a high positive correlation (+.79) between them. Moreover it is at hand and not as expensive as the original ones.

It is a combination of holistic and analytic scales together. In fact it does not need to conduct holistic and analytic scorings separately and in two different times. It is holistic because it has levels for each component of the skill like accuracy, fluency… which have been described and clarified to the raters. It is supposed to be analytic, because each level, in addition to its description, is given a numerical value (1-5) and the sum of these values (scores) is the score for that component. Finally sum of the numerical values given to the different components of the spoken data, accuracy pronunciation, fluency, comprehensibility and vocabulary, is the subjects' total score based on which H/She is ranked (between 1 to 25).

The scale components and numerical values are given in the following tables (Table 1 to 5):

TABLE ONE (FLUENCY)

Very poor	poor	Adequate	Good	Very good
Full of hesitation, stops and a very slow rate of delivering of language	Slow rate of delivery of language with errors	Acceptable rate of delivery but with frequent errors	Reasonable rate of language delivery with relatively infrequent hesitation	Acceptable, native-like rate of delivery whit no hesitation
Total Score=1	**Total Score=2**	**Total Score=3**	**Total Score=4**	**Total Score=5**

TABLE TWO (PRONUNCIATION)

Very poor	poor	Adequate	Good	Very good
Barely comprehensible, Extremely Anglicised pronunciation	Comprehensi ble but with some difficulty and frequent serious mispronunciation	Inconsistent with some notable errors in pronunciation and intonation	Mostly correct intonation and pronunciation using different sound patterns Easily	Only occasional errors of Pronunciation and intonation
Total Score=1	**Total Score=2**	**Total Score=3**	**Total Score=4**	**Total Score=5**

TABLE THREE (ACCURACY)

Very poor	poor	Adequate	Good	Very good
Very little evidence of grammatical awareness. Very short utterances whit frequent inaccuracies and interfere with communication	Frequent serious errors or few serious errors but only uses simple language and rely on short utterances	Weak in more difficult areas, some ability to self correct with inaccuracies but do not impede with communication	Mostly accurate in more complex language with some mainly minor errors. Syntax nearly always correct with increased length of utterances	Highly accurate in more complex language with only a few errors. Use lengthy utterances with complex structure
Total Score=1	**Total Score=2**	**Total Score=3**	**Total Score=4**	**Total Score=5**

TABLE FOUR (VOCABULARY)

Very poor	poor	Adequate	Good	Very good
Very poor and limited. Vocabulary. Frequent incorrect words and borrowing from other languages. Unable to use alternate phrasing.	Poor, lexical limitation, frequent repetition of common words and phrases and occasional borrowing of vocabulary.	Generally sufficient lexical knowledge and ability to produce synonyms. Repetition of less common vocabulary.	Adequate lexis to handle familiar tasks. Varied and interesting vocabulary. Little or no repetition and a good range of specific and general vocabularies.	In addition to the features of good performances, demonstrates idiomatic usage of vocabulary with ability to select unexpected words.
Total Score=1	**Total Score=2**	**Total Score=3**	**Total Score=4**	**Total Score=5**

TABLE FIVE (COMPREHENSIBILITY, ORGANIZATION OF IDEAS)

Very poor	poor	Adequate	Good	Very good
Very poor information, inadequate and not organized. Ideas introduced into no apparent order.	Information is basic and inconsistently organized. Some progress of organized ideas but with a simplistic approach.	Ideas mostly well-worn. Pedestrian and not always linked and some attempt to give opinion or develop an argument.	Information is effectively chosen and clearly organized. Clear structure with logical presentation of ideas and development of arguments.	Information is thorough and exceptionally organized. Ideas clearly linked and well developed. Interesting insights into the subjects are given.
Total Score=1	**Total Score=2**	**Total Score=3**	**Total Score=4**	**Total Score=5**

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Mohiadin Amjadian is a faculty member at Kurdistan medical university. He got his MA in TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University. He is interested in ESP, language testing and material development.

Saman Ebadi is a PhD candidate of TEFL at Allamaeh Tabatabei University, Tehran, Iran. His areas of interest are sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, CALL, CMC, language acquisition, and syllabus design. He has presented in different national and international conferences on ELT and published articles in scholarly journals.

Foreign Language Anxiety and Strategy Use: A Study with Chinese Undergraduate EFL Learners

Zhongshe Lu
Tsinghua University, China
Email: lvzhs@tsinghua.edu.cn

Meihua Liu
Tsinghua University, China
Email: ellenlmh@gmail.com

Abstract—**The present study explored foreign language anxiety and strategy use in relation to their interactive effect on the students' performance in English. The participants were 934 Chinese undergraduates who completed a 71-item survey. Complicated statistical analyses (e.g., correlation analyses, regression analyses and structural equaling model) were run on the data, which show that 1) nearly one-third of the students experienced anxiety in English class, 2) the participants mainly reported a medium use of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, 3) foreign language classroom anxiety, cognitive strategy use, and metacognitive strategy use were all significantly correlated with one another, and 4) all the measured variables produced a significant effect on the students' performance in English. Based on the findings, some implications for teaching and learning of English are discussed.**

Index Terms—**anxiety, cognitive, metacognitive, strategy use, performance**

I. INTRODUCTION

Extensive research has explored anxiety or language learning strategy use among learners of English as a second/foreign language (SL/FL) and students of various backgrounds learning other languages such as Japanese, Spanish and Russian (Gu & Johnson, 1996; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Zhang & Liu, 2008). However, not much research can be found on anxiety and language learning strategy use simultaneously in the same SL/FL context. The present research examined foreign language anxiety and strategy use in relation to their interactive effect on the students' performance in English simultaneously with Chinese university EFL learners of similar backgrounds.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the decades, research on anxiety and language learning strategy use has been flourishing. Based on quantitative and/or qualitative data, researchers have generally found that many students experience anxiety in language classes, that anxiety is predominantly inversely correlated with language performance, that more proficient students are less anxious, that anxious students can be identified, and that anxiety is closely related to many other linguistic, cognitive, and affective factors such as learning style, learning strategy, unwillingness to communicate, competition, and motivation (Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002; Bailey, 1983; Chen, 2002; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Liu, 2006, 2007; Phillips, 1992; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). As interviews, observations and reflective journals are frequently used in qualitative studies, the predominantly employed instrument in quantitative studies to measure foreign language anxiety is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). The scale, often abbreviated as the FLCAS was designed to measure three dimensions of foreign language classroom anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986). Communication apprehension originates from the fear of or anxiety about communicating with people; fear of negative evaluation refers to the apprehension about others' evaluations; and test anxiety stems from a fear of failure in tests (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Likewise, numerous studies on language learning strategy use have exposed that it is closely related to learning outcomes in that more successful language learners tend to use more good language learning strategies and choose the strategies more appropriate to a certain language task (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Bremner, 1999; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Vandergrift, 1996, 1997; Wang, 2007; Wen, 1995, 1996; Zhang & Liu, 2008), and that it interacts with various other variables to affect language learning such as motivation, cultural background, task type, age, L2 proficiency, learning style, and gender (Grainger, 1997; Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Skehan, 1989; Vandergrift, 1996, 1997). And the most often employed baseline model to measure learners' language strategy use is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning developed by Oxford (1990). According to this Inventory, language learning strategies fall into six categories: memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation,

affective, and social strategies. Memory strategies are concerned with the storing and retrieval of information; cognitive strategies refer to the manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner; compensation strategies enable learners to use the target language for either compensation or production in spite of limitations in knowledge of the language; metacognitive strategies relate to learners' cognition; affective strategies involve the regulation of feelings and attitudes; and social strategies involve communication with other people, acknowledging the fact that language is a form of social behavior (Oxford, 1990).

The use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies has been frequently the focus in a number of studies (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Kupper & Russo, 1985; Purpura, 1997; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003; Wen, 1995), which have revealed that more proficient learners tend to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more, and that metacognitive strategy use and cognitive strategy use often interact with each other to affect students' performance in the target language. Likewise, foreign language anxiety, as reviewed above, has been uncovered to be an important debilitating factor in the learning of a SL/FL language. The present study aimed to explore the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in relation to their interactive effect on students' performance in English in Chinese university EFL contexts. For this purpose, the following research questions were formulated:

1) What is the general pattern of foreign language classroom anxiety in Chinese university EFL learners?

2) What is the broad profile of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use by the Chinese university EFL learners?

3) How is the students' foreign language classroom anxiety related to their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies?

4) How do the measured variables correlate with the students' performance in English?

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Participants

The participants were 934 (587 male and 347 female) first-year non-English majors from various disciplines such as Law, Engineering, Mechanics and Economics and Management at three universities in China. All were enrolled in credit-bearing and compulsory English courses offered by their universities. With an age range from 13 (only one extremely excellent student) to 21 and an average age of 18.49, the majority (451/48.3%) of the participants aged 18, followed by the group aged 19 (315/33.7%), and then came the groups aged 20 (97/10.4%) and 17 (53/5.7%).

B. Instrument

For this study, the students completed a survey consisting of a 19-item Cognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire, a 16-item Metacognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire, a 36-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, and the background questionnaire, as detailed below. The strategy use questionnaire items were placed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'Always or almost always used' to 'Never or almost never used' with values 1-5 assigned to the descriptors respectively. Also placed on a 5-point Likert scale, the descriptors for the anxiety questionnaire items ranged from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree'.

In the present study, both the Cognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire (CSUQ) and the Metacognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire (MSUQ) were adapted from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning developed by Oxford (1990). To better fit the present situation, five more items were added to the CSUQ and seven more items to the MSUQ respectively, with reference to the English Learning Strategy Use Questionnaire self-developed by Liu and Zhang (2010).

The Cognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire (CSUQ). With Oxford's (1990) classification as the base model, this 19-item CSUQ (a = .819) intended to measure four dimensions of cognitive strategy use: practicing (CSUQ1) (e.g., I listen to/watch an English episode repeatedly until I understand every word.), comprising 6 items, receiving and sending messages (CSUQ2) (e.g., I read for pleasure in English.) having 3 items, analyzing and reasoning consisting of 7 items (CSUQ3) (e.g., I try to find patterns in English.), and creating structure for input and output having 3 items (CSUQ4) (e.g., I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.).

The Metacognitive Strategy Use Questionnaire (MSUQ). This 16-item MSUQ (a = .8796) sought to measure three dimensions of metacognitive strategy use: centering one's learning (MSUQ1) (e.g., I pay attention when someone is speaking English.) which includes 4 items, arranging and planning (MSUQ2) (e.g., I have clear goals for improving my English skills.) which has 8 items and evaluating one's learning (MSUQ3) (e.g., I test myself on English materials.) consisting of 4 items.

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). This 36-item FLCAS (a = .92) was directly adopted from that in Liu's (2006, 2007) and Liu and Jackson's (2008) studies which was adapted from the scale developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) to the better suit the Chinese EFL context. As theorized by Horwitz et al. (1986), the FLCAS intended to measure three dimensions of foreign language classroom anxiety: fear of negative evaluation (FLCAS1) (e.g., I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in the English class.) comprising 12 items which were reflective of fear of being negatively evaluated, communication apprehension (FLCAS2) (e.g., I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.) consisting of 7 items which indicated apprehension of speech communication, and test anxiety (FLCAS3) (e.g., I am usually at ease during English tests in my class.) having 2 items suggestive of

fear of English tests.

Background information. The background questionnaire aimed to gather the respondents' demographic information such as name, gender, department, university, and English-learning time.

Performance in English. All the participants' scores in the course final exam taken in the last (16th) week of the term were collected as their performance in English (Liu, 2006). The exam consisted of listening, reading and writing (speaking was excluded because it was time-consuming), but only the total score was used in the present study.

C.   Procedure

The survey was administered to 30 intact classes of first-year undergraduate non-English majors at three universities in the 14th week of the first 16-week term of Academic Year 2007-2008. The survey was competed in about 13 minutes. Of 1121 collected questionnaires, 934 were complete for further statistical analyses.

D.   Data Analysis

For each measure, the mean, standard deviation, median, mode, and score range were calculated to determine to what extent the students felt anxious in English language classrooms and/or how frequently they used the strategies when learning English. Then, correlational analyses, regression analyses and structural equation modeling were run to explore the relationship between foreign language anxiety, strategy use, and their predictive effect on the students' performance in English.

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Broad Profile of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

To investigate the broad profile of the students' foreign language classroom anxiety, the means, standard deviations, medians, modes, and score ranges of the FLCAS and its three subscales were computed. Thus, the total score of the FLCAS revealed a respondent's anxiety during English language classrooms; the total score of the FLCAS1 represented the respondent's fear of being negatively evaluated; the total score of the FLCAS2 implied anxiety about speech communication; the total score of the FLCAS3 indicated anxiety about English tests. For all the constructs, the higher the score, the more anxious/nervous the respondent felt.

Since there are 36 items on the FLCAS, a total score of more than 144 implies that the respondent is very anxious in oral English classrooms. A total score of 108 to 144 signifies moderate anxiety and a total score of less than 108 indicates no/little anxiety in the oral English classroom. Within the FLCAS construct, the FLCAS1 has 12 items, the FLCAS2 has 7 items, and the FLCAS 3 has 2 items. Therefore, a total score of more than 68 on the FLCAS1 implies strong fear of being negatively evaluated, a total score of 36-68 indicates moderate fear of being negatively evaluated, and a total score of less than 36 reflects no/little fear of being negatively evaluated. As to the FLCAS2, the score ranges for being strongly, moderately apprehensive and strongly/moderately not apprehensive of speech communication are more than 28, 21-28 and less than 21 respectively. And the score ranges for high, moderate and low test anxiety are more than 8, 6-8 and less than 6 respectively. The results are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE FLCAS AND ITS SUBSCALES (N = 934)

	Mean	Standard deviation	Median	Mode	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
FLCAS	100.07	18.75	100	89	36-172	-.037	.378
FLCAS1	33.61	6.899	34	36	12-59	-.077	-.012
FLCAS2	19.98	4.38	20	20	7-35	-.018	.126
FLCAS3	5.49	1.597	6	6	2-10	.166	-.251

With a range of 36 to 172, the FLCAS had a mean of 100.07 (SD = 18.75), a median of 100 and mode of 89, which were all below the scale midpoint 108, implying that approximately one-third of the students experienced anxiety in English class, as found in several existing studies with students of a similar background (Chen, 2002; Liu, 2006, 2007; Wang, 2003).

As shown in Table 1, the FLCAS1 had a mean of 33.61 with a median of 34 and a mode of 36; the FLCAS2 achieved a mean of 19.98 with a median and mode of 20; and the FLCAS3 had a mean of 5.49 with a median and a mode of 6. Namely, all the subscale scores barely exceeded their scale midpoints (36, 21, and 6 for the FLCAS1, the FLCAS2, and the FLCAS3, respectively). This lends further support to the result of the FLCAS data that nearly a third of the respondents felt anxious in English class, feared being negatively evaluated, and were apprehensive about both speaking and tests, as found in Liu and Jackson's (2008) study and many others in various contexts (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 2001; Liu, 2006, 2007).

Moreover, both the skewness and kurtosis values for all the scales were far below 1, implying that a normal distribution existed for all the scales. This further confirms the findings described above.

B.   Broad Profile of Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategy Use

To reveal the broad profile of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use, the means, standard deviations, medians, modes, and the score ranges of the CSUQ, the MSUQ and their subscales were computed. The total score of the

CSUQ/MSUQ revealed a respondent's use range of cognitive/metacognitive strategies. The higher the score, the more frequently the respondent reportedly used the strategies.

For the 19-item CSUQ, a total score of more than 76 implied a high use of the cognitive strategies in English learning, a total score of 57 to 76 signified a medium use, and a total score of less than 57 indicated a low use. Similarly, a total score of more than 24 for the 6-item CSUQ1 suggested a high use of practicing, a total score of 18 to 24 indicated a medium use, and a total score of less than 18 reflected a low use. For the 3-item CSUQ2 and CSUQ4, the score ranges for a high, medium and low use of receiving and sending messages (CSUQ2) and creating structure for input and output (CSUQ4) respectively were: more than 12, 9-12, and less than 9. The score ranges for a high, medium and low use of analyzing and reasoning for the 7-item CSUQ3 were: more than 28, 21-28 and less than 21 respectively. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Likewise, a total score of more than 64 on the 16-item MSUQ suggested a high use of the metacognitive strategies in English learning, a total score of 48 to 64 signified a medium use, and a total score of less than 48 indicated a low use. For the 4-item MSUQ1/MSUQ3, a total score of more than 16 indicated a high use of centering one's attention/evaluating one's learning, a total score of 12 to 16 was implicative of a medium use, and a total score of less than 12 reflected a low use. For the 8-item MSUQ2, the score ranges for a high, medium and low use of arranging and planning one's learning respectively were: more than 32, 24-32, and less than 24. The results are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE COGNITIVE AND METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY USE QUESTIONNAIRES (N = 934)

	Frequency of strategy use				
	Mean/use range	Standard deviation	Median	Mode	Score range
CSUQ1	17.94/low use	3.89	18	18	6-30
CSUQ2	9.58/medium use	2.14	10	10	3-15
CSUQ3	22.4/medium use	3.94	22	21	7-35
CSUQ4	8.25/low use	2.13	8	8	3-15
CSUQ	58.17/medium use	9.21	58	60	20-95
MSUQ1	14.38/medium use	2.55	15	16	4-20
MSUQ2	24.12/medium use	5.16	24	24	8-40
MSUQ3	12.82/medium use	2.68	13	12	4-20
MSUQ	51.32/medium use	8.78	51	50	16-80

Table 2 shows that the CSUQ achieved a mean of 58.17 (SD = 9.21), a median of 58 and a mode of 60, all (nearly) exceeding the scale midpoint 57 but fell below 76. This suggests a medium use of the cognitive strategies by the participants in English learning. The CSUQ1 had a mean of 17.94, a median and mode of 18, almost all slightly below the scale midpoint 18, indicating a low use to the upper end of practicing strategies. The CSUQ2 had a mean of 9.58, a median and mode of 10; the CSUQ3 mean was 22.4, with a median of 22 and a mode of 21. Apparently, both CSUQ 2 and CSUQ 3 scores exceeded their scale midpoints 9 and 21 respectively. Alternatively, the participants had a medium use of the cognitive strategies of receiving and sending messages, and analyzing and reasoning. The mean for the CUSQ4 was 8.25, with a median and mode of 8, implicative of a low use of the strategies of creating structure for input and output. These findings further confirm the result of the CSUQ data, partially confirming the results of Purpura's (1997) and Zhang and Liu's (2008) studies about the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in English tests.

Meanwhile, the MSUQ had a mean of 51.32 (SD = 8.78), a median of 51 and a mode of 50, all being far greater than the scale midpoint 48 but smaller than 64. This implies a medium use of the metacognitive strategies by the correspondents in English learning. In addition, the MSUQ1 had a mean of 14.38, a median of 15 and a mode of 16; the MSUQ2 had a mean of 24.12, a median and mode of 24; and the MSUQ3 mean was 12.82, with a median of 13 and a mode of 12. Clearly, nearly all the MSUQ subscale scores (slightly) exceeded their scale midpoints (12, 24 and 12 for MSUQ1, MSUQ2 and MSUQ 3 respectively). Apparently, the learners reported having a medium use of the strategies of centering attention and evaluating learning, a low but a medium use of the strategies of arranging and planning, as found about the participants during an English test in Purpura's (1997) and Zhang and Liu's (2008) studies.

C. Relationship between Anxiety and Strategy Use and Performance in English

To determine the relationship between foreign language anxiety, the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and the students' performance in English, correlational analyses were conducted. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
CORRELATIONS AMONG THE MEASURED VARIABLES

	FLCAS1	FLCAS2	FLCAS3	FLCAS	CSUQ1	CS22	CS32	CS42	CS2	MSUQ1	MSUQ2	MSUQ3	MSUQ	Performance
FLCAS1	1	.737**	.513**	.925**	-.306*	-.358**	-.214**	-.185**	-.347**	-.237**	-.355**	-.325**	-.376**	-.260*
FLCAS2		1	.473**	.861**	-.388*	-.401**	-.249**	-.190**	-.408**	-.269**	-.360**	-.318**	-.386**	-.259*
FLCAS3			1	.636**	-.213*	-.292**	-.136**	-.096**	-.238**	-.210**	-.239**	-.244**	-.276**	-.247*
FLCAS				1	-.372*	-.425**	-.259**	-.214**	-.416**	-.299**	-.389**	-.362**	-.426**	-.317*
CSUQ1					1	.551**	.456**	.365**	.830**	.464**	.599**	.451**	.624**	.195*
CSUQ2						1	.422**	.319**	.719**	.468**	.540**	.445**	.589**	.238*
CSUQ3							1	.349**	.799**	.480**	.536**	.486**	.603**	.142*
CSUQ4								1	.609**	.265**	.464**	.346**	.455**	.106
CSUQ									1	.571**	.715**	.582**	.763**	.223*
MSUQ1										1	.471**	.454**	.706**	.243*
MSUQ2											1	.659**	.925**	.153*
MSUQ3												1	.824**	.181*
MSUQ													1	.216*
Performance														1

Notes: ** = p < .01;   * = p < .05

As noted in Table 3, the FLCAS and its subscales were all significantly inversely correlated with the CSUQ and the MSUQ and their subscales, with coefficients ranging from -.096 to -.426 (p < .01). Namely, a respondent who reported to fear being negatively evaluated more, be more apprehensive of communication and tests, tended to use less all categories of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Meanwhile, the CSUQ and its subscales were all significantly positively related to the MSUQ and its subscales, with a coefficient range of .265 to .763 (p < .01). Evidently, a more frequent user of cognitive strategies of all kinds preferred to deploy metacognitive strategies more often as well. Finally, all the FLCAS scales were significantly negatively related to the students' performance in English, with a coefficient range of -.247 to -.317 (p < .05); while all the CSUQ and MSUQ scales except the CSUQ4 were significantly positively correlated with the latter, with coefficients ranging from .142 to .243 (p < .05). That is, an anxious student was more inclined to perform poorly in English, while a more frequent user of cognitive or metacognitive strategies tended to perform better in English, as discovered in Purpura (1998).

D. Regression Analyses

The results of the correlational analyses discussed previously show numerous bivariate relationships, which failed to indicate the influence of one variable on another. Better clues were provided by multiple regression analyses. A stepwise method was employed in forming regression models. Altogether three models were resulted with the change in R^2 being all significant: .001 for model 1 (FLCAS) (p = .000), .024 for model 2 (FLCAS, MSUQ1) (p = .000), and .005 for model 3 (FLCAS, MSUQ1, FLCAS1) (p = .027). The results are shown in Table 4, which reports coefficients from the regression models, as well as their levels of significance.

TABLE 4:
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS AND SIGNIFICANCE

		FLCAS	MSUQ1	FLCAS1
Performance in English	β	-.436	.155	.180
	t	-5.294	4.81	2.221
	p	.000	.000	.027
	VIF	7.229	1.112	6.971

As can be seen, all the coefficients were statistically significant at the .000 level except the FLCAS1 which was at the .027 level. Among the three included variables, the FLCAS was the most powerful predictor (β = -.436, t = -5.294), followed by the MSUQ1 (β = .155, t = 4.81), and the FLCAS1 (β = .180, t = 2.221). The MSUQ1 and the FLCAS1 were positive predictors, while the FLCAS was a negative one. Contrary to the results of correlation analyses presented in Table 3, the FLCAS1 became a positive contributor to the students' performance in English, as revealed in Liu and Zhang (2011). This might be that anxiety negatively affected students' performance in English when working alone, but

might become a positive factor when interacting with other variables, as discussed in Liu and Zhang (2011). Thus, a conclusion can be drawn that such factors as anxiety and metacognitive strategies yielded certain impact on the students' performance in English, which is further supported by the structural equation modeling of the variables shown in Figure 1.

E.   The Structural Model of the Measured Variables and Performance

The statistical analyses of the data previously discussed indicate that the data satisfied the statistical assumptions of structural equation modeling (SEM). In specifying a general model of the relationships between reported degree of the measured variables and the students' performance in English for the sample, we argued for a three-factor model of foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCAS), a four-factor model of cognitive strategy use (CSUQ), and a three-factor model of metacognitive strategy use (MSUQ), as detailed in previous sections.

Of the numerous models tested, the baseline model of the measured variables and the students' performance, presented in Figure 1, seemed to fit the data well from both a statistical and substantive perspective. The model produced a CFI of .96, a Chi-square of 204.07 (p = .000), and a RMSEA of .07, implying a fairly good representation of the sample data. All the estimates (standardized) in the model were substantively plausible and statistically significant at the .000 level.

As shown in the structural model, classroom anxiety (-.49) showed a significant, negative effect, while the CSUQ (1.29) and the MSUQ (.96) exerted a significant, positive effect on the students' performance in English. Concerning the effect of the measured variables on one another, anxiety exhibited an interactive effect of -.53 with the CSUQ and -.4 with the MSUQ respectively; and the MSUQ produced a significant interactive effect of .96 with the CSUQ. All these results are largely consistent with those of correlation and regression analyses expounded previously, which attests to our hypothesis that anxiety and strategy use interact with each other to affect students' performance in English.
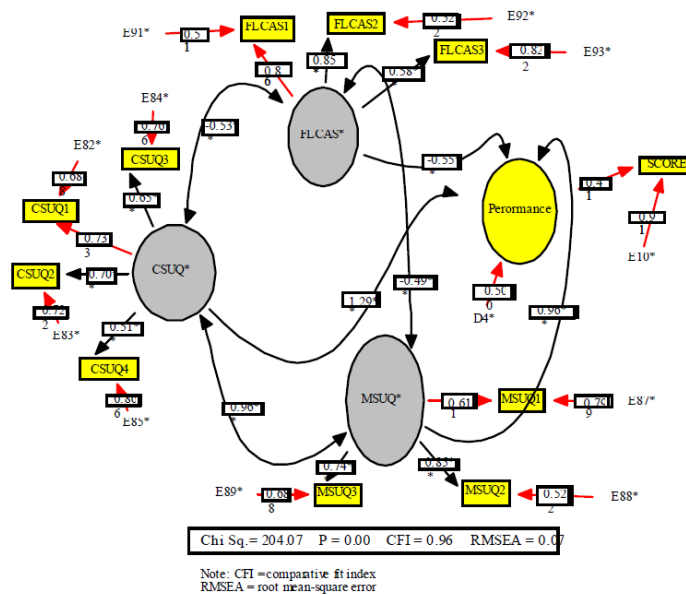
Figure 1: SEM of the Measured Variables and Performance

V.   CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of the present study on foreign language anxiety, cognitive and metacognitive strategy use and the students' performance in English. First, statistical analyses show that approximately a third of the respondents felt anxious in English class, feared being negatively evaluated, and were apprehensive about both speaking and tests. Second, the participants reported a medium use of the cognitive strategies of receiving and sending messages and analyzing and reasoning, but a low use of the strategies of practicing and creating structure for input and output. Likewise, they reported a medium use of all the categories of metacognitive strategies. Correlation and regression, as well as the SEM analyses, reveal that foreign language classroom anxiety, cognitive strategy use and metacognitive strategy use were all significantly correlated with one another, which again interactively affected the students' performance in English. For example, a respondent who reported to fear being negatively evaluated more tended to use less all categories of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and perform worse in English. Meanwhile, a more frequent user of cognitive strategies of all kinds preferred to deploy metacognitive strategies more often as well and was more inclined to perform better in English.

Since anxiety acted as a negative predictor of the students' performance in English when functioning alone, reducing students' anxiety may be important to enhance their learning outcomes, as discussed in a number of studies (Horwitz et

al., 1986; Liu, 2006, 2007; Liu & Zhang, 2010, 2011; Young, 1991). Meanwhile, it is worth noting that anxiety might exert a positive effect on the students' performance in English when interacting with other variables, as found in the present study. This suggests the multi-functions of anxiety in English learning, as reported in Liu and Zhang (2011). Therefore, it is necessary for both EFL teachers and learners to be prudent when dealing with anxiety in the teaching and learning of English. Instead of trying hard to create a relaxing environment, a certain degree of anxiety should be maintained on certain occasions to keep the students alert in English learning, as suggested by Liu and Zhang (2011).

Meanwhile, since both cognitive and metacognitive strategy use was evidenced to produce a significantly positive effect on the students' performance in English, it is worth trying to help students become (more) aware of the existence and importance of strategies to improve their use of the strategies. As Yang (1996) discovered, the students were able to "to improve the use of their learning strategies through awareness-raising in group interviews and informal strategy instruction" (1996, P. 204). Hence, it is beneficial to enhance FL/SL learners' awareness of strategy use through formal and informal instruction, since good awareness of metacognitive strategies is characteristic of good learners.

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Zhongshe Lu is professor of English at the Department of Foreign Languages & Literatures, Tsinghua University, China. Her major research interests include EFL teaching and learning, stylistics, and pedagogy.

Meihua Liu is associate professor of English at the Department of Foreign Languages & Literatures, Tsinghua University, China. Her research interests mainly include EFL teaching and learning in the Chinese context, individual differences, anxiety and reticence, and EFL writing.

The Effect of L2 Writing Ability on L1 Writing Ability

Mahmood Hashemian

English Department, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran
Email: m72h@hotmail.com

Abstract—**This study was an attempt to examine the effect of L2 writing ability on L1 writing ability from a multilingual perspective. To this end, 120 students of Isfahan University, half English majors and half non-English majors, were assigned to 4 groups, consisting of 30 English major senior students, 30 English major freshman students, 30 non-English major senior students and 30 non-English major freshman students (Accounting and Management majors). All the participants were asked to write a paragraph of about 150 words on the topic "What are your plans for the future?" in Farsi. For analyzing the possible syntactic development in each participant's writing ability, 2 measuring criteria were used: 1) Loban Index, and 2) T-unit. To summarize and analyze the data, both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized. A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the means of the 4 groups on the Loban Index criterion to see whether their differences were statistically significant. In order to observe the real differences of the means of the 4 groups based on the T-unit criterion and also to specify the interaction between the levels of the independent variables, a one-way ANOVA was run. The results of the 4 groups who studied the L2 (i.e., English) with different intensity indicated that the English major senior students outperformed the other 3 groups in the obtained F-value on the Loban Index criterion. The findings support the idea that intensive and successful L2 learning can have a beneficial influence on the development of L1 writing ability.**

Index Terms—**multicompetence, interlanguage, writing ability, transfer**

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to speak two languages is often seen as something of a remarkable achievement. Because 70% of the earth's population is thought to be bilingual or multilingual (Choong-Philip, 2006; Trask, 1999), there is good reason to believe that bilingualism is the norm for the majority of people in the world. One of the major issues in the field of second language acquisition research (SLAR) is the role of language learners' L1 in the acquisition of an L2. The concept of transfer in the field of SLAR has been used chiefly in the direction of L1 to L2, but much less is known about the opposite direction (i.e., from L2 to L1) due to the absence of motivation and exposure in an L2 environment.

Cook (1992, p. 580) states that, "the total of multicompetence implies relationships between the two languages stored in the same mind at some level, even if not the merger of holistic competence." Cook (1992, p. 577) asserts that, "the usefulness of the multicompetence idea is that it provides a different perspective from which to look at L2 learning. Instead of L2 users being treated as deficient monolinguals, they should be treated as people in their own right." He has further added that, "clearly, the multicompetence has important consequences for language teacher," in creating L2 competence in their students whether grammatical or communicative. It could further be added that a syllabus that lacks particular attention to the specific nature of L2 users seems inadequate.

Cook (1992) believes that a) bilinguals have a different metalinguistic awareness from people who only know an L1, b) L2 users have different cognitive processes from monolinguals, c) the level of L2 proficiency in academic circumstances is related to the level of L1 proficiency, d) L2 processing cannot be cut off from L1, e) L1 and L2 share the same mental lexicon, f) both L1 and L2 are stored in the same areas of the mind, and finally, g) L2 users differ from monolinguals in the knowledge of L1. The abovementioned evidence is in line with the claim that there seems to be a positive relationship between the knowledge of both L1 and L2, and therefore, the more proficient the L2 learner is in L2 writing ability, the more developed his or her L1 writing ability should be.

Therefore, this study aims at investigating whether L2 writing ability has any influence(s) on L1 writing ability–more specifically, on structural well-formedness and syntactic complication of L1 as the result of *Interlanguage* development and syntactic growth in an L2. In other words, in the present study, the mutual dependency between L2 and L1 presupposes that conscious mastery of forms and analytic skills developed in L2 learning are likely to support L1 development.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The notion of Interlanguage first appeared in the mid 1960s. According to Spolsky (1989), L2 learners' knowledge as a complete whole is quite different from both competing language systems. It is assumed by Selinker (1972) that there exists a latent psychological structure in the brain that is activated whenever an adult attempts to produce meanings in

the processes of L2 learning. One of the mechanisms assumed to exist in the latent psychological structure is fossilization which includes linguistic items, rules, and subsystems that speakers of a particular L1 will tend to keep in their Interlanguage relative to a particular L2.

Another related notion is multicompetence. According to Cook (1991), multicompetence is the knowledge of two or more languages in a single mind. It is postulated that multicompetence has arisen out of the technical questions of universal grammar (UG) Theory. According to the UG Theory, children cannot induce abstract principles simply from the data presented to them by adults. The theory contends that because the crucial abstract principles of UG are available to children innately, they are able to acquire L1 effortlessly (McLaughlin, 1987). Whereas, Cook (1992) argues that there is an obvious difference between a person who knows an L2 and a person who knows only one language. In other words, people who know two languages may think differently from those who only know one language. Bialystok (1990) argues that as far as grammaticality judgment of semantically anomalous sentences is concerned, bilingual children are better than monolinguals.

Two competing positions are usually distinguished as to the relationship between two language systems in a multicompetent mind. The first one, the *separatist position*, claims that a multicompetent mind is formed by two or more discrete coexisting language systems without any links between them. Grosjean (1989) has called this view *the monolingual view of bilingualism* because he believes that this view treats both languages as if they are two L1s. According to the second position, however, the existence of two or more languages in a multicompetent mind has been viewed as a total language system rather then two independent ones. Grosjean (1989) has called this view the *holistic position*.

One of the factors related to multicommpetence is *transfer*. Odlin (1989) defines it as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired." The issue of bidirectionality in transfer is raised by Gundel and Tarone (1992, cited in Gass & Selinker, 1992). The bidirectional influence forms a unique competence which shows both similarities to and differences from the native monolingual competence (Beare, 2000; Kecskes, 1998).

Cook (1992) claims that learning an L2 might have some effects on L1 knowledge. In the field of phonology, for instance, it has been maintained that the phonological systems of people who know an L2 differs from those of the monolinguals. Cummins (1979) shows how bilinguals often outperform monolinguals. Moreover, Genesee and Stanley (1976) report high correlations between L1 and L2 reading skills and conclude that this proficiency is most likely transferred from one language to the other. Swain and Lapkin (1982) also carried out immersion studies in Toronto and Ottawa. The results of their longitudinal study showed that although immersion students seemed to have lower literacy skills than unilingual students in the first two years, these differences disappeared as soon as English language arts were officially introduced into the curriculum in grade 3. In grade 5, the immersion students even outperformed the English-only program students in some aspects. In order to compare the linguistic complexity of L1 and L2, one should appeal to something rather than *length*, *duration*, or *size*. Beaman (1984) determines syntactic complexity of spoken and written discourse by simply comparing the percentage of subordinate clause structures in both discourse types.

There has been a great amount of research about the influence of L1 on L2 (e.g., Cummins, 1991; Harley, 1986; Heidrick, 2006; Mondorf, 2003), but what about the influence that L2 learning might have on L1 literacy skills? This study, therefore, sought answer to the following questions:

1. How does writing ability in L2 learners (in this case, English) affect their L1 (in this case, Persian) writing ability?
2. How does L2 proficiency relate to L1 writing ability?

The findings of this study are probably significant regarding conscious L2 learning in the classroom; they may strengthen the multicompetence view, too. The findings also may enhance multicompetence in the field of L2 and bilingual research and the assumption that the grammar of an L2 in a multicompetent speaker cannot be the same as the equivalent grammar in a monolingual.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Four different groups of students of Isfahan University, all Iranian native speakers of Persian with different English proficiency levels, were selected in order to test their L1 writing ability. These four groups had the following characteristics: Group A consisted of 30 English-major seniors; Group B consisted of 30 TEFL freshmen; Group C included 30 non-English-major seniors; and Group D included 30 non-English-major freshmen students of Accounting and Management. All the participants, aged 18-25, were randomly selected from a population of university students.

As the main goal of the study was to investigate the effect of L2 writing competence on L1 writing ability, the abovementioned participants were chosen–those who had developed basic English and those bereft of such knowledge.

B. Materials

Each participant was asked to write a paragraph of about 150 words in Persian on the topic: "What are your plans for the future?" The reason for selecting this topic was twofold. First, it seemed to be an easy topic, not hampering low-proficiency students. Second, students might often be reluctant to put their thoughts on paper unless a topic awakened their interests. Whereas different topics may have different inducements for people to write, making plans could entice

them to regulate their writing activities. Therefore, they might use reasoning to form opinions and arguments requiring them to make complex structures.

C. Procedure

Each participant was asked to write a paragraph about the abovementioned topic in Persian, and no time limit was imposed on them. After they were finished with their writings, the papers were collected and scored. Each sentence in the written passages was analyzed based on: 1) The Loban index (see the Appendix), which measures subordinate clauses and specifies the complexity of the sentences beginning with subordinate conjunctions like *although*, *nevertheless*, *consequently*, *after*, etc.; 2) the total number of terminable units for independent clauses and compound sentences. The latter is usually used in order to determine the unity of the passages. Special care was devoted to syntactic structures and T-units because it is assumed that both well-structured sentences and the frequent use of complex sentence structures can be the signs of the development of L1.

Each composition was scored by three qualified Persian raters (university professors) for syntactic complexity based on the abovementioned measurement criteria. In order to make sure that the raters rated the papers homogeneously and they were consistent all throughout their scoring, reliability coefficients were calculated and were found out to be significant for both interrater ($r = .85$, $p < .05$) and intrarater ($r = .95$, $p < .05$).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In order to find out whether the participants in the four groups differed significantly or not, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The results are presented in Table 1:

TABLE 1.
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE LOBAN INDEX

Source	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*P*
Between Groups	2.962	3	.987	91.759	.000
Within Groups	1.248	116	.011		
Total	4.210	119			

The results indicated that the differences were statistically significant ($F = 91.759$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$). In order to locate the exact area(s) of difference(s), Scheffe post-hoc test was used. Table 2 shows the results:

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST-HOC TEST

Group	Group	Mean Difference	*P*
EMS	EMF	.14617**	.000
	NEMS	.07750*	.044
	NEMF	.41717**	.000
EMF	EMS	-.14617**	.000
	NEMS	-.06867	.093
	NEMF	.27100**	.000
NEMS	EMS	-.07750*	.044
	EMF	.06867	.093
	NEMF	.33967**	.000
NEMF	EMS	-.41717**	.000
	EMF	-.27100**	.000
	NEMS	-.33967**	.000

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

Following the data presented in Table 2, the following conclusions may be arrived at:
1. The participants in the English-major senior group outperformed the participants in the other three groups.
2. The poorest performance belonged to the participants in the non-English-major freshmen group ($M = .41717$).
3. The participants in the non-English-major senior group outperformed the non-English-major freshmen group ($M = .33967$), but their performance was lower than the English-major senior group ($M = -.07750$). The performance of the participants in this group and those in the English-major freshmen group was not significantly different ($p > .05$).

Table 3 presents a one-way ANOVA statistics for the T-unit calculations to find out whether this difference was statistically significant or not:

TABLE 3.
THE RESULTS OF THE ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE T-UNIT

Source	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*P*
Between Groups	390.467	3	130.156	27.401	.000
Within Groups	551.000	116	4.750		
Total	941.467	119			

As Table 3 shows, the differences were statistically significant ($F = 27.401$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$). In order to find exactly where the difference(s) lay, Scheffe post-hoc test was used. Table 4 shows the results of this test:

TABLE 4.
THE RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST-HOC TEST

Group	Group	Mean Difference	*P*
EMS	EMF	3.100**	.000
	NEMS	1.933**	.010
	NEMF	4.967**	.000
EMF	EMS	-3.100**	.000
	NEMS	-1.167	.237
	NEMF	1.867*	.014
NEMS	EMS	-1.933**	.010
	EMF	1.167	.237
	NEMF	3.033**	.000
NEMF	EMS	-4.967**	.000
	EMF	-1.867*	.014
	NEMS	-3.033**	.000

* Significant at .05 level.
** Significant at the .01 level.

Based on Table 4, the following results could be deduced:

1. The participants in the English-major senior group significantly outperformed the participants in the other 3 groups ($p < .01$).

2. The poorest performance belonged to the participants in the non-English-major freshmen group ($M = -4.967$).

3. The participants in the non-English-major senior group outperformed the participants in the non-English-major freshmen group ($M = 3.033$), but their performance was lower than that of the English-major senior group ($M = -1.933$). The performance of the participants in the non-English-major senior group and those in the English-major freshmen group was not statistically different ($p > .05$).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to find out whether L2 writing development may work both ways (i.e., from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1). In order to find out whether or not writing ability in L1 becomes more sophisticated and develops more intensively for university students, half English majors and half non-English majors, were assigned to the four groups of English-major seniors, English major freshmen, non-English-major seniors, and non-English-major freshmen, each comprising 30 participants. All the participants were asked to write two paragraphs of about 150 words on the topic "What Are Your Plans for the Future?" in Persian. The results of the four groups of the learners who studied L2 with different intensity indicated that the English-major senior students, who were dominantly exposed to the L2 input, outperformed the other three groups.

The findings of this study not only imply conscious L2 learning in classroom but also strengthen the multicompetence view (Cook, 1992), which postulates that "there seems to be strong links between L1 ability and L2 classroom success, even if the results do not generalize for L2 learning outside the classroom" (p. 574). The results of this study might also indicate that if L2 learning is accompanied by intensive formal instruction and adequate motivation, it can have positive effects on the writing ability and syntactic complexity of the L1 of the L2 learners.

The English-major freshmen outperformed the non-English-major freshmen among the four groups. The non-English-major senior group obtained the second highest group mean after the English-major senior group. The results indicate that the non-English-major seniors might have had opportunities to enjoy L2 instruction, but such opportunities had not been intensive enough to exert a qualitative increase in their L1 skills.

These results are also in congruence with those obtained by Caskey-Sirmons and Hickson (1977), who concluded that the meanings of the words in L1 can, to a large extent, be influenced by the L2 words. Similarly, the findings of Kecskes (1998), which were deduced from a longitudinal experiment, demonstrated the positive and beneficial effects of the L2 on the syntactic structures of the L1 in three groups of high school students studying the L2 Russian, French, and English in different classroom settings. It can be further concluded that intensive and successful L2 learning can have a beneficial effect on the development and use of L1 skills.

The results of this study almost demonstrate a qualitative increase in the L1 skills of the English major senior students who are intensively exposed to the L2 instruction for, at least, four years. It can, in fact, be contended that L2 learners may transfer the meaning system they already possess on their own to a new language. In brief, the findings reject the first null hypothesis of the study and validate the following hypothesis: Intensive and successful L2 learning can have a beneficial effect on the development of L1 skills.

It is recommended that L2 teachers take their students' L1 into consideration while teaching the key concepts or when elaborating on grammatical points in the classroom. L2 materials designers should also bear in mind that the users of their materials are not monolinguals but people who are already thinking and using an L2. It can also be claimed that such kind of L2 planning will not come true and bring about changes in the monolingual system unless, as claimed by

Kecskes (1998, p. 336), "the language learning process is intensive enough and can rely on significant learner motivation."

APPENDIX THE LOBAN INDEX

$$LI = \frac{\text{Total number of B, C, D}}{\text{Total number of A, B, C, D}}$$

Loban's weighted Index of Subordination is based on four categories of subordinate clauses:

• A (1 point): A subordinate clause that is directly dependent upon a main clause.

Example: Although he was new in the city, he managed to get around easily.

• B (2 points): A subordinate clause which modifies or is placed within another subordinate clause.

Example: You should sign up for the trip to Shiraz which is the center of Fars Province that is located in the south of Iran.

• C (2 points): A subordinate clause which contains a verbal construction (i.e., infinitive, gerund, participle).

Example: Since she didn't have time to go to the bookstore before coming to class, she couldn't follow the professor's lecture.

• D (3 points): A subordinate clause which modifies or is placed within another subordinate clause which, in turn, is within or modifying another subordinate clause.

Example: They talked to the teacher who teaches at the school which is on the other side of the town in which Ali was born.

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Mahmood Hashemian is an assistant professor at Shahrekord University. His area of research includes cognitive-semantic linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. He has published articles in academic journals such as IJAL, IJLS, JALS, Linguistik-Online, JLTR, TPLS, Iranian EFL Journal, and International Journal of Social Sciences. Also, he has given lectures in conferences such as TELLSI (4, 7, & 8), LDP2010, ELT in the Islamic World, and ILC2011, Malaysia.

An Investigation into the Relationship between Self-esteem, Proficiency Level, and the Reading Ability of Iranian EFL Language Learners

Kamal Heidari Soureshjani
Young Researchers Club Member, Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord Branch, Iran
Email: K_tefl_h@yahoo.com

Noushin Naseri
Shiraz University, International Division, Shiraz, Iran
Email: nasseri@hotmail.com

Abstract—The current study aimed at investigating the any probable relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self esteem, proficiency level, and also their reading scores. To do so, 120 male and female Iranian language learners were picked out and grouped into three beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level groups using a reading comprehension test. Then the other instrument of the study, a questionnaire on self-esteem, was employed to measure their degree of self-esteem. Having run two correlations and one regression SPSS programs, the results revealed that there was a significant but weak correlation between the learners' self-esteem and their reading performance. In addition, a strong significant correlation was observed between the proficiency-level of language learners and their self-esteem. Finally, the result indicated that of the two independent variables of the study, it was the proficiency level that was a better predictor of language learners' reading ability. Conducting studies like the present one may contribute effectively on the better teaching of language to learners.

Index Terms—self-esteem, proficiency level, reading ability, correlation, regression analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been conspicuous through different studies that affective variables play a crucial role in language acquisition. However, in recent years the importance of affective factors has become a matter of debate among language teachers, linguists, and researchers. Scads of studies have been achieved on this issue and most of them approved that affective variables may not be ignored in EFL/ESL learning success or failure. The interest in affective variables in language learning in some modern teaching classes aimed at reducing anxiety and inhibitions and enhancing learners' motivation and self-esteem (De Andres, 2002).

Self-esteem can be simply defined as how we value ourselves. It is how we consider our value to the world around us and how worthwhile we are to others. Self-esteem influences persons' trusts in others, their relationships, and their work. Positive self-esteem gives people the strength and flexibility to take charge of their lives and grow from their mistakes without the fear of being rejected. Positive self-esteem can be manifested through the syndromes such as: optimism, good self-care, non-blaming behavior, etc. At the other side of the coin is low self-esteem which may be realized through signs like: negative view of life, fear of being ridiculed, fear of taking any risk, etc.

Chastain (1988), also maintains that of all learners' variables used for learning a language the most influential are those related to the learner's emotions, attitudes, and personalities. He further continues that the affective domain plays a larger role in developing second-language skills than the cognitive domain because the emotions control the will to activate or shut down the cognitive functions. He believes that if students are not willing to learn, they either will not learn much, or they will not use their maximum capacity to perform well. Moskowitz (1978) states that, there is a relationship between humanistic education and concern for personal development, self-acceptance, and acceptance by others. He actually highlights the important role of making students more human. Moreover, based on humanistic education learning is affected by how students feel about themselves. It is concerned with educating the whole person in all aspects including the intellectual and emotional dimensions.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Self -esteem is one of the emotional variables accounted for by many researchers. Alexander (2001), the founder of self-esteem network in Britain, believes that self-esteem is a syndrome, as a set of indicators for mental well-being. The core of self-esteem is an unconditional appreciation of oneself, meaning an appreciation of both our negative and positive potentials in its fullest sense. An acceptance of this enables us to take responsibility for ourselves and become

accountable for our actions. It also means that we can be more realistic about our achievements and shortcomings. Based on James (1890), it is the sum of our success divided by our pretensions, i.e., what we think we ought to achieve. Therefore, self-esteem can be increased by achieving great success, and maintained by avoiding failure. Raised self-esteem, James then argued could also be achieved and maintained by adopting less ambitious goals. Self-esteem is therefore defined as being competence oriented but also open to change. James (2002) also stated that high self-esteem is not only usually considered good for individuals who have it but it is also good for societies as a whole. The belief is that high self-esteem can inoculate people, especially young people against vulnerability to a wide range of socials ills. Rosenberg (1965) made another important feature to the concept of self-esteem by introducing the notion of "worthiness". Worthiness is whether a person judges him/herself as good or bad and therefore is an evaluative attitude towards oneself. Forming attitudes about oneself is very complicated because it implies some kind of comparison with others, the forming of value judgments and is rooted in a social culture base. Coopersmith (1967) also provided a definition for self-esteem based on which self-esteem is the extent to which an individual believes himself to be able, significant, successful, and worthy. This definition, in fact, is bringing together the James's definition of self-esteem as competence-base and Rosenberg's definition as an evaluation of oneself. Coopersmith, moreover, added the point that self-esteem is important to a person's identity and awareness and that high and low self-esteem would influence a behavior in positive and negative ways respectively.

In line with the above-cited studies, Stevick (1976) rightly asserts that language teacher should make the development of positive attitudes and feelings in language learners as their first and foremost priority. Stevick (1982, p. 27) then maintains that, "fluency depends at least as much on emotional factors as on amount of practice".

Research has shown that the student who feels good about himself is more likely to succeed. Holly (1987) for example compiled a summary of many studies and pointed out that most of these studies indicated that self-esteem is the result rather than the cause of academic achievement. In addition, Heyde (1979) studied the effects of different levels of self-esteem on the performance of an oral production task by American college students learning French as a foreign language. She found that the different levels of self-esteem correlated positively with performance of oral production measures. Results of the studies done by Watkins et. al. (1991) also showed that self-esteem appeared to be an important variable in SLA.

Elmer (2001), in an overview of the current research on the impact of self-esteem on social and personal problems, noted that young people who have very low self-esteem are more likely to show signs of depression. They have, Elmer continued, suicidal thoughts and fail to respond to social influence. If a problem is not biological by itself, then it will almost always be traceable to poor self-esteem (White, 2002).

As to the relationship between the self-esteem and reading skill, Gee (1999) noted that there is an important relationship between affect and reading. Teachers have long been interested in making language learners motivated to read, and it has been recognized that in addition to skills, readers need the inclination to read (Gambrell, 1996). Affective aspects of reading, as maintained by Crammer and Castle (1994), are equal in value to cognitive aspects. Mathewson (1994) also reminds us that cognition and affect are indissolubly connected to reading as they are in all other human endeavors. There is even evidence that in addition to motivating the act of reading, emotional involvement has a significant impact on comprehension (Gaskins, 1996). Recently reading theories call reading an "interactive process (Carrell et al., 1988). Widdowson (1979) describes reading as a combination of textual information and background knowledge of the reader and this knowledge, in turn, may be refined and extended by the new information supplied by the text. Reading is thus viewed as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the texts. Regarding these remarks, although reading is a very important part of every foreign language curriculum, there has been little research on the effect of self-esteem on this skill. Therefore, the current study is an attempt to find the effect of self-esteem on the reading performance of Iranian students of English as a foreign language. in addition to determining the any probable relationship between self-esteem and reading performance, this study also tries to ascertain if the self-esteem as an affective factor, and the reading level of students are interrelated or not.

To be more detailed on the study, the following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. Is there any significant relationship between self- esteem and reading performance?

2. Is there any significant relationship between self-esteem and level of ability of language learners?

3. Which independent variable (self-esteem and level of ability) is a better predictor of reading scores?

Although multitudes of studies have been previously done considering the variable of self-esteem, very few of them investigated its role with regard to reading skill. Consequently, the results of the study can help both teachers and students to pay attention to the effect of self-esteem on language learning and especially on reading to develop positive attitude toward it. Besides, as Brown (2000) rightly pointed out, reading as an important source of input for second language acquisition is very susceptible to be affected by affective variables. Self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of one's self, and the belief about one's own capabilities are all examples of affective factors that are very important in accomplishing any activity. Therefore doing studies on them and finding out the relationship that each of them may have with linguistic and cognitive features can add valuable findings to the body of knowledge on better and more effective teaching and learning of a language.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Altogether 120 Iranian students took part in the study. They were both male and female students and were taking pre-university courses. Their age ranged from 16 to 23. The participants were divided into three beginning, intermediate, and advanced level groups based on their scores on the placement reading test given to them. After giving the test, it turned out that 42 of the participants were placed in the low, 48 in the intermediate, and finally, 30 of them in the high level of ability groups.

B. Instruments

Two types of instruments, a reading comprehension placement test and a questionnaire, were utilized to gather the required data. As to the reading comprehension test, it consisted of six reading comprehension passages accompanied by 40 multiple-choice questions. This test was piloted on smaller group of students (N = 25) exclusive of the main participants but similar to them. The reliability of the test turned out to be 0.73 using Cronbach alpha formula. In order to check its content validity, the test was examined by some professors and was confirmed to be valid for the present study purpose.

Regarding the second instrument, the self-esteem questionnaire (See Appendix 1), it was developed by Coopersmith (1967) and consists of 58 items all of which try to measure the degree to which students feel self-esteem during the class. One point with regard to the questionnaire is that 8 items of the questionnaire (items No. 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, and 55) play the role of filter in order to see whether the participants have responded the items with sufficient consideration. Therefore, removing these filters, the rest 50 items are divided into four types of self-esteem: whole self-esteem, social self-esteem, family self-esteem, and lastly, academic self-esteem. This questionnaire was also pre-tested on the same 25 above-cited participants. The Cronbach alpha formula revealed that its reliability was almost 0.76. Like the first instrument, the questionnaire was also checked and confirmed by the experts to be valid.

C. Data Collection

At the beginning of the study the reading comprehension placement test was administered among the participants. The purpose of this test was to divide all the participants into three low, intermediate, and high groups in terms of their reading proficiency level. To do so, the mean and standard deviation of the gained scores, which ranged from 6 to 40 out of 40, were calculated. Those who scored more than one standard deviation above the mean were placed into the high-level group. Those who scored between one standard deviation below and above the mean were considered in the intermediate-level group, and finally, those students whose score were one standard deviation below the mean were placed into the low-level group.

In the next stage of the study that was two days after giving the reading test, the self-esteem questionnaire was distributed among the same students to fill it in. The point with regard to the questionnaire is that the students' responses to each item were scored dichotomously as either zero or one. To be more detailed, for items No. 14, 18, 19, 23, 24, 28, 29, 21, 30, 32, 36, 45, 47, 57, 2, 4, 5, and 10 the YES response will receive one and NO response will receive zero. For the other items the reverse process is applied. That is, for the NO response of the participants, one point and for their YES response no point (zero) were assigned. Therefore, it is obvious that the maximum and minimum score a person may obtain is 50 and 0 respectively. On the whole, each of the students came up with two scores: one for the reading test, and the other for the self-esteem questionnaire.

D. Data Analysis

Having gathered the data and in order to analyze them, statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 16 in general, and two correlation and a multiple regression in particular were run. The purpose of running these two methods of analysis was to ascertain whether first, there is any relationship between self-esteem and reading performance and also between self-esteem and ability level of language learners; and second, which variable (ability level and self-esteem) is a better predictor of reading scores.

IV. RESULTS

Having gathered the required data and analyzed them, now in this section the gained results of the study are presented. Table 1 presents the descriptive information of the participants with regard to their reading performance and also self-esteem. The table is conspicuous and needs no further illustration.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
selfesteem	36.0	9.8	120
readscore	27.3	8.2	120

The table that represents the main findings as to the any interrelationship between the level of participants' self-esteem and their reading performance is table 2. The table clearly shows that since the Pearson correlation equals .53

and the Sig. value is less than .05 (p = .01), therefore, there is a weak positive and significant relationship between the two variables.

TABLE 2.
CORRELATION RESULTS OF READING SCORE AND SELF-ESTEEM

		selfesteem	readscore
selfesteem	Pearson Correlation	1	.531[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.011
	N	120	120
readscore	Pearson Correlation	.531[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	
	N	120	120

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The other aspect of the study seeks the existence or lack of any correlation between the language learners' self-esteem and their proficiency level. Table 3 represents apparently the primary statistics of the two variables.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SELF-ESTEEM AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
level	1.9	.77	120
selfesteem	36.0	9.8	120

By taking a look at table 4, which represents the correlation findings of the study for the two variables, it can be inferred that first, a significant relationship exists between the reading proficiency level of learners and their self-esteem degree; and second, a strong positive correlation exists between the same variables meaning that the higher the proficiency level of learners, the higher their degree of self-esteem and vice versa.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATION OF SELF-ESTEEM AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL

		level	selfesteem
level	Pearson Correlation	1	.865[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	120	120
selfesteem	Pearson Correlation	.865[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	120	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Having observed a significant and positive relationship between the language learners' self-esteem, reading performance, and language proficiency level, now time is ripe to determine which of the two independent variables of the study (self-esteem and proficiency level) is a better predictor of learners' reading score. The results of regression presented below are a great help. Table 5 is pertaining to the descriptive statistics of the three variables. It consists of the Mean and SD. amounts of each of the variables.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
readscore	27.3	8.24	120
level	1.9	.77	120
selfesteem	36.0	9.81	120

Table 6 is the other concerned table which reveals the model summary of the data. What is of out interest in this table is the column labeled R^2 also called coefficient of *multiple determination* which is, in fact, the percent of the variance in the dependent variable explained uniquely or jointly by the independent variables. The mount of R^2 shows that 47 percent of the variance in the language learners' reading performance is explained by the combinations of the independent variables namely, self-esteem and proficiency level ($R^2 = .47$).

TABLE 6
MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.828[a]	.479	.267	7.05879

a. Predictors: (Constant), selfesteem, level

In order to ensure that the coefficient of multiple regression demonstrated by R^2 is significant or not, the reported significance of ANOVA table, that is, table 7 needs to be heeded. The table shows that the reported significance is less than the p- value (Sig. = .000).

TABLE 7.
ANOVA RESULTS

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2258.4	2	1129.2	22.6	.000
	Residual	5829.7	117	49.8		
	Total	8088.1	119			

Finally, table 8, the coefficient table, presents the information pertaining to every individual independent variable. This table indicates whether and to what extent each of the independent variables has been able to predict the variance in the dependent variable. The first result with the table is that from the two independent variables, the Sig. value is significant just for proficiency variable. It means that just this independent variable was able to predict the variance of the dependent variable (p = .00). To determine the weighting of this variable on the dependent variable variance, Beta value reveals that one standard deviation unit change in the proficiency level would result in 0.57 units of change in the reading scores (Beta= .057).

TABLE 8.
COEFFICIENT

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	18.535	2.479		7.475	.000
	level	6.157	1.017	.576	6.054	.000
	selfesteem	-.079	.080	-.094	-.993	.323

V. DISCUSSION

After presenting the results of the study, n this section of the paper the afore-cited research questions are presented discussed one by one and then the final comments are mentioned.

1. Is there any significant relationship between self- esteem and reading performance?

The first research question investigates any probable interconnection between the language learners' degree of self-esteem and their reading performance. As it was brought up in the preceding section, the study indicates a significant but weak correlation between the two variables. The study is in contrast to the very many studies that note the important factor of affective factors including self-esteem. Chastain's (1988) is among these studies pointing out that among all the variables affecting the performance of learners affective variables such as self-esteem are more important of other factors like cognitive factors. Gee (1999) also reported an important relationship between affect and reading. The present study, however, implies that other factors may are more important than affective variables. , Stevick (1976) also found out that creating some sense of positive attitudes in language learners as their first and foremost priority. However, the present study indicated that they should pay more attention to linguistic and cognitive aspects of language than affective features.

2. Is there any significant relationship between self-esteem and level of ability of language learners?

This research question addresses the existence of any correlation between the language learners' self-esteem and their proficiency level. The study revealed that there is a positive strong interrelationship between these variables. To reflect cursorily on the statement it seems that the conclusion is right. It is apparent that as the proficiency level of a person increases, that person will be more confident in using the language. There are also some studies confirming this finding. Holly (1987) for example concluded that self-esteem is the result rather than the cause of academic achievement. In addition, Heyde (1979) also approved the above-cited conclusion by asserting that different levels of self-esteem correlated positively with performance of oral production measures. Watkins et. al. (1991) also reported the high importance of self-esteem in SLA.

3. Which independent variable (self-esteem and level of ability) is a better predictor of reading scores?

And finally, the last research question investigates which of the two independent variables (self-esteem and proficiency level) is a better product of learners' reading performance. It was said that both the independent variables correlate with the reading score of learners. However, it was the proficiency level of learners that correlated more effectively with the reading score of language learners.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study aimed at investigating first, is there any relationship between the language learners' self esteem and their reading performance. Second, it explored whether or not there is a correlation between the learners' self esteem and their proficiency level. And finally, the study was also an attempt to ascertain which of the two variables of self esteem or proficiency level is a better predictor of learners' reading performance. The study revealed that with regard to the first purpose of the study, although showed a significant relationship between the learners' self-esteem and their reading scores, this relationship was not so strong. It was also said that in many other studies mentioned in the literature section however, found a strong correlation between the same variables. As to the second objective of the study, the study results imply a significant and strong correlation between the self-esteem and proficiency level of learners. This finding, unlike the first finding of the study, was absolutely consistent with a good deal of previously conducted studies dealing with the same issue. Finally, regarding the last thrust of the study, it was understood that the proficiency level of learners is more effective in determining and predicting the reading performance of language learners than their self-esteem.

The study, albeit the author did his best to conduct a complete study, suffers, however, from some limitations. The first limitation and maybe the most noticeable can be ascribed to the participants of the study. In other words, in order to gain much more reliable information and findings about the study variables there should be carried out other studies with more participants in different contexts. Secondly, this study focused just on the reading skill of language learners. Therefore, more studies need to be carried out with regard to other language aspects so that, more comprehensive conclusions and findings can be made with regard to the role of self-esteem and proficiency level in language learning.

APPENDIX   SELF ESTEEM QUESTIONNAIRE

پاسخ‌دهنده عزیز
جملات زیر را به دقت بخوانید و در صورتي كه هر يك از آنها با وضعيت فعلي شما مطابقت دارد در ستون «بلي» و چنانچه به هیچ شكلي با وضعيت شما مطابقت ندارد، ستون «خير» را علامت بگذاريد.

خير	بلي	
		1 - بيشتر اوقات در خواب و خيال بسر مي‌برم.
		2 - از خود خيلي مطمئن هستم.
		3 - اغلب آرزو مي‌كنم اي كاش فرد ديگري بودم.
		4 - من دوست داشتني هستم.
		5 - با والدينم اوقات خوشي را مي‌گذرانم.
		6 - هيچ وقت درباره چيزي نگران نمي‌شوم.
		7 - صحبت كردن در مقابل كلاس برايم سخت است.
		8 - آرزو مي‌كنم اي كاش جوانتر بودم.
		9 - چيزهاي زيادي در من وجود دارد كه اگر مي‌توانستم، آنها را تغيير مي‌دادم.
		10 - به آساني مي‌توانم تصميم بگيرم.
		11 - ديگران از بودن من لذت مي‌برند.
		12 - در خانه زود عصباني مي‌شوم.
		13 - هميشه كار درست را انجام مي‌دهم.
		14 - به امور تحصيل خود افتخار مي‌كنم.
		15 - هميشه كسي بايد به من بگويد چه كار بكنم.
		16 - انجام هر كار جديدي وقت زيادي را از من مي‌گيرد.
		17 - اغلب از آنچه انجام داده‌ام متأسفم.
		18 - بين هم سن و سالان خود مشهور هستم.
		19 - معمولاً والدينم به احساسات من توجه مي‌كنند.
		20 - هرگز ناخشنود نيستم.
		21 - تا آنجا كه بتوانم كار را به نحو احسن انجام مي‌دهم.
		22 - من به راحتي تسليم مي‌شوم.
		23 - معمولاً مي‌توانم از خود مواظبت كنم.
		24 - من فردي نسبتاً شادمان هستم.
		25 - من ترجيح مي‌دهم با بچه‌هاي كوچكتر از خودم بازي كنم.
		26 - والدينم انتظارات بيش از حدي از من دارند.
		27 - من تمام كساني را كه مي‌شناسم دوست دارم.
		28 - دوست دارم معلم در كلاس براي درس جواب دادن من را صدا بزند.
		29 - من خود را درك مي‌كنم.
		30 - مثل من بودن خيلي سخت است.
		31 - همه چيز در زندگي من گره خورده است.
		32 - بچه‌ها معمولاً از عقيده من پيروي مي‌كنند.
		33 - هيچ كس در خانه به من توجه زيادي نمي‌كند.
		34 - هرگز سرزنش نمي‌شوم.
		35 - آنطور كه دوست دارم تكليف مدرسه‌ام را انجام نمي‌دهم.

36 - می‌توانم تصمیم بگیرم و به آن پای‌بند بمانم.
37 - من واقعاً دوست ندارم که یک پسر/دختر باشم.
38 - من خودم را دست‌کم می‌گیرم.
39 - دوست ندارم با دیگران باشم.
40 - خیلی وقت‌ها دوست دارم خانه را ترک کنم.
41 - من اصلاً کمرو نیستم.
42 - من اغلب اوقات در مدرسه احساس دلخوری می‌کنم.
43 - من اغلب احساس می‌کنم که از خود شرمنده‌ام.
44 - من به زیبایی دیگران نیستم.
45 - اگر چیزی برای گفتن داشته باشم معمولاً آنرا می‌گویم.
46 - بچه‌ها اغلب از من عیب‌جویی می‌کنند.
47 - پدر و مادرم مرا درک می‌کنند.
48 - من همیشه راست می‌گویم.
49 - معلمان در من احساس ناخوشایند بی‌کفایتی را به وجود می‌آورند.
50 - برایم مهم نیست که بر من چه می‌گذرد.
51 - من فردی شکست‌خورده هستم.
52 - به هنگام سرزنش به آسانی ناراحت می‌شوم.
53 - بچه‌های دیگر بیشتر از من مورد علاقه دیگران هستند.
54 - اغلب اوقات این احساس را دارم که والدینم مرا تحت فشار قرار می‌دهند.
55 - همیشه می‌دانم که به مردم چه بگویم.
56 - اغلب در مدرسه دلسرد می‌شوم.
57 - معمولاً چیزی مرا آزار نمی‌دهد.
58 - نمی‌توان به من اعتماد کرد.

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Kamal Heidari Soureshjani holds M.A in TEFL from Shiraz University and is a Young Researchers Club Member. He taught English courses and IELTS at different institutes in Shiraz and is presently the academic member of Azad University, Shahrekord branch. He has also published papers in journals including IJLS.

Noushin Naseri holds M.A in TEFL from Shiraz University. She has taught different English language courses and also IELTS for several years. She also used to teach at Islamic Azad Universities in Kerman.

Foreign Language Education in Lebanon: A Context of Cultural and Curricular Complexities

Nahla Nola Bacha

Humanities and Social Sciences Department, Lebanese American University, Byblos, Lebanon
Email: nbacha@lau.edu.lb

Rima Bahous

Education Department, Lebanese American University, Beirut, Lebanon
Email: rbahous@lau.edu.lb

Abstract—**Knowing more than one or two languages has always been a natural consequence of cultural exchange. Thus educational institutions the world over have placed teaching/learning of languages high on their agendas as they find the need for their students to be competitive in the global career arena. The communication among different cultures and the efforts of education have added to the multi lingual/culture of many countries. However, the growth of this multilingualism/multiculturalism is not without its questions concerning complexities involved in what attitudes do the learners hold towards learning languages, which languages should be taught and whether these languages would 'complex' the learners in finding their own native language 'inferior'. This study examines these complexities in Lebanon, a country long known for its multi lingual/cultural makeup, Specifically, the paper gives an overview of the cultural influences in the country over the past century and how this was responsible for the adoption of the foreign languages, mainly French and English, that coexist in the country today along with Arabic, the native language. The paper focus on the consequent educational trends in teaching/learning languages in noting the new National Curriculum changes in the 1990's after the civil war and how the policies were implemented at both the pre and tertiary sectors. Cultural, attitudinal, motivational and language acquisition factors are discussed in how the French medium and English medium schools accounted for them in their language curricula and how they impact learners' language development. The researchers debate whether the teaching/learning of foreign languages may eventually lead to the 'decline' of the national language, the latter being a 'complex' for the many, which is a concern that most countries are facing these days.**

Index Terms—**Lebanon, multilingualism, multiculturalism, language and education, languages in Lebanon, EFL/ESL**

I. INTRODUCTION

Lebanon, a 'small' country located in the Middle East near the Mediterranean Sea, offers a 'gold mine' for language study considering its unique multilingual and multicultural make up. One does not have to travel much there to hear Arabic, French, English, Armenian or other languages spoken everywhere. For many who come to our shores, the complexity of the language situation is appreciated and praised, but at the same time with the foreign languages being spoken in many sectors, one could wonder whether it is due to a complex that the people have concerning their own native language Arabic and thus pride themselves in knowing other languages such as English and French. Indeed, the Lebanese have been praised for their hospitality, their cultures and languages.

In this paper we share our language story and show how the Lebanese have addressed the multi lingual/cultural milieu in developing their language education in spite of the outside influences, the war and the demographic diversity. It is significant to show how a country characterized by a multi lingual/cultural attempts to deal with the complexities in the educational sector. It is believed that it is here in education that 'world citizens' are produced that can and should communicate across various cultural communities.

Most research in Lebanon is done locally by Lebanese international scholars (referred sometimes in the literature as 'gloclocal'). Specifically, we present how the history of Lebanon has been marked by its profound multilingual/multicultural profile, and the main issues involved in foreign/second language teaching at both the pre and university levels, with emphasis on teaching/learning English in both the private and public sectors.

II. THE MULTILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL MAKEUP OF THE LEBANESE

Lebanon's unique position between East and West makes it very receptive to other cultures and languages. The teaching of languages other than the native language, Arabic, in pre-university education has been influenced by the presence of foreign influences which went through three phases (Frayha 1999). During the first phase, foreign missionaries between the 17th and 20th centuries were relatively free to use the language of their home countries and

establish schools which were products of the Ottoman-European relations. It was the French and British who were mainly active during this period, the former being more so. The second phase, during the French Mandate (decree no. 2079, dated June 20, 1924) imposed the teaching of Arabic and French languages as compulsory in private schools (see Jarrar, Mikati, Massialias, 1988). In effect, schools teaching English and Arabic had to include the teaching of French. At that time, French foreign schools constituted 80% of the total in the country. It was with the third phase, after the independence of Lebanon in 1943 from French governance, that schools teaching English as the second foreign language increased (Atiyeh 1970). However, the number of students who studied English did not increase significantly until the 1970's when English began to become an important means of communication world wide. From then on, many schools opted to introduce a trilingual system with English as a third language. At the university level, the American University of Beirut, one of the leading English medium university in Lebanon and in the Middle East, founded in 1866, had Arabic as the medium of instruction until 1882 after which studies began in English (see Abu Ghazaleh, 1990 and Zachs, 2005 for a comprehensive account).

A word on second versus foreign language teaching in relation to Lebanon is in order at this point. Yazigi (1994) explains that in Lebanon while Arabic is the native language of most of the Lebanese, French is referred to as the second language as it is taught in most schools. It is the medium of instruction in French sponsored schools and universities and it is also the language spoken by people in the community outside of the classroom. English, on the other hand is mainly referred to as a foreign language as it is the third language that students study in French medium schools. In American and British sponsored schools and universities where English is the medium of instruction, English is referred to as a second language while French being the third, is referred to as a foreign language. However, unlike French, English in the community is still referred to as a foreign language as it is not usually the language spoken outside the classroom. Yazigi (1994) applies this distinction between foreign and second language to Lebanon. She notes that English is taught as a foreign language in Lebanon at large and at the university in particular as Arabic, French, Armenian or other languages of communities, rather than English, are the languages of daily use.

The teaching/learning educational system in which more than two 'other' languages is now compulsory in the school systems is by no means an easy task even for the language gifted Lebanese (Frayha 1999). Much effort is being exerted in teaching and learning languages in Lebanon and English is increasingly becoming a part of its life, whether in studies or communication. All three languages are important in Lebanon in education, but it is French and Arabic that are used mostly in the social and business world. Recently, English is being viewed not only as another option in which students can follow a course of study, but one that offers 'prestige'. English is also increasingly viewed by many Lebanese as an important tool to further one's studies abroad in the US, UK Australia, and Canada. This, of course, is related to the fact that many have immigrated during the civil war period and still do so to this date in great numbers to seek a better future.

In addition, over the last three decades, foreign workers have increased in Lebanon adding Philippine, Amharic, Sinhalese, Indian, Pakistani and Nepalese to name the main languages. But it is English and French that are the main foreign/second languages brought by the American and French influences in both education and public sectors with the French influence being more prevalent.

On the individual level, the language and identity situation is quite a complex one. It is not unusual for a Lebanese national to have Armenian as a first language, Arabic as a second, English a third, French a fourth and possibly a knowledge of one other language such as Spanish or German. Although Arabic is the native language of most Lebanese, it is very common for people to use French during daily conversation (English increasingly used recently), and it is also 'natural' that in almost all sectors of society, a mixture of languages is in daily use with frequent code switching among languages. In fact, the use of French and English over Arabic in educational, social and business circles is becoming more evident; a reflection and result of the receptiveness of the Lebanese to Western culture and their travels abroad. The language situation is also related to the literacy level (89.6% of adults and 98.7% of youth) in Lebanon which is relatively high considering the unstable periods that the country has witnessed. Bashur (2004) reports that Lebanon has the highest literacy rates amongst its neighboring countries of 97.5% between the ages of 15-24 in 2000 and Haidar (2002) adds that Lebanon has the best universities and publishing houses in the Arab world. Moreover, in 2009, Beirut became the World Book capital.

Cultural and political factors have influenced to different extents the educational system in Lebanon and have made any account of the latter quite a complex task especially during the period of the Lebanese civil war and its aftermath (Serriyeh 1989). However, an attempt will be made to give an account of the language education in Lebanon and the growing importance of English separate from these factors as much as possible. This will be done in describing language teaching and learning in relation to the framework of the country's general educational background, the pre-university and university educational systems; learning methodology, cultural and motivational factors toward language learning, and teacher language education.

III. NATIONAL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENTS

The new National Language Curriculum, approved by the Council of Ministers in 1994, made it a requirement for all schools to teach a second 'foreign' (i. e. other) language. That is, schools in addition to Arabic, should have either English or French as a first 'foreign' language in addition to a second 'foreign' language. The fifteen years of war,

1975-1990, interrupted growth and development in the educational sectors quite severely, but since 1990 there have been plans set up for the educational reconstruction of Lebanon (Frayha, 2003). Zouain (1994) outlined specifically at the post war period the work needed to be done at both the high school and university levels which entailed building infrastructures, educational programs, training qualified personnel, and a whole new national curriculum. It is in this context, that educators have made efforts to review and implement a revised language curriculum at both the pre-university and tertiary levels (Shaaban & Ghaith 1997) sponsored by the Ministry of Education in conjunction with the Center for Education Research and Development. The work, based on modern theories of curriculum design and teaching methods, has entailed implementing a new national curriculum mainly for the public sector involving a multiplicity of interrelated learner, teacher, subject, and contextual factors (see BouJaoude & Ghaith 2006; authors; 2009 for a review on the educational system).

In the new national curriculum, the learning of the Arabic language and the first foreign language (English or French), consists of 6 periods/week each totaling 12 hours/week, and the second foreign language (English or French) 2 periods/week.

Related to the learning of English and applicable to all three languages, the purpose of the Curriculum is designed for academic achievement, social interaction, and cultural enrichment based on five main principles: communication, context variation, cultural awareness, interactive learning, integration of skills.

The language curriculum is now in its 13th year of implementation, and although there are no rigorous results as yet to the extent of the effectiveness of the new approach, students and teachers' experiences have indicated a general positive attitude in the learning situation (BouJaoudeh & Ghaith, 2006). However, the curriculum is quite challenging for those who have been following traditional methods. Many teachers find it often difficult to adapt to a system in which new methodology and time constraints need to be constantly addressed throughout the regular teaching/learning process. Thus, teacher training has been very high not only on the Ministry of Education's agenda, but also on agendas of many private institutions and universities. Since more students are currently opting to continue their higher studies in English medium universities, considering them the 'best', addressing English Language teacher training has become a very essential part of the curriculum.

The new curriculum has not been without other challenges. There have been debates on the effectiveness of the new curricular in a Lebanese context in bringing about positive changes in 'individual and social integration' and to revise the English curricular to be in conformity with recent teaching/learning models at a time of international communication and globalization. Inati (1999) emphasizes the value of the reform in offering the relevant language background for university education, future careers, international communication and fostering critical and analytic minds. Adapting to the new curriculum has been difficult for those teachers who prefer their old ways claiming that through the latter better results in student's learning are obtained (personal communication with teachers). Mikati (2000), however, highlights the importance of the thinking skills emphasized in the new curriculum. She argues for the importance of involving students in activities that draw on the higher order skills of application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation in students' cognitive development in learning other languages that the New National Curriculum is emphasizing. A final note is worthy of comment. Education in Lebanon is considered very important and high educational attainment is prestigious: families do their utmost (even selling their land) to educate their children. The amount placed on schooling is 8.1% of the total public expenditure with all levels receiving equal attention. Pre-primary education is mostly sponsored by privately owned institutions and day care facilities. Zouain (1994) confirms that 'education ranks very high on the social scale of values...' (p. 3351).

IV. LANGUAGE POLICY--PRE-UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

Students usually begin learning the second languages in the elementary classes, which are the media of instruction for all the school subjects. If most of the curriculum uses French as the medium of instruction, students are referred to as being *French educated* and if most use English, they are referred to as *English educated*. Being in either system of education does not exclude study of the other language as a third language referred to as a 'foreign' language. For example, a *French educated* student would also be required to study 3-6 hours per week of English language and vice versa (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999). Zouain (1994) comments on the study of languages in Lebanon that more than half of the Lebanese people are bilingual, 75% of students learn French as a second language and 25% English especially in the private schools. In fact, it was the private schools that remained open during the most difficult times in Lebanon and were the main source of education when the country was in crisis (see Zakharia, 2004). Most government institutions were severely affected and many closed for long periods.

At the end of the intermediate school period (Grade 9), students are issued with the Brevet Diploma. At the completion of the high school (Grade 12) years, a Baccalaureate Diploma (French and/or Lebanese) is awarded and students are then eligible for university study.

According to statistics from the Lebanese Ministry of Education, 62.5% of all Lebanese schools offered French as a second language in the school year in 1999-2000 which decreased to 55.8% in 2005-2006 and schools in which English was offered increased from 19.7% to 21.6 percent. Also, schools giving both English and French increased from 17.8% in 1999-2000 to 22.6% in 2005-2006 (Beirut *Daily Star* – On-Line News retrieved March 30, 2009 http://www.beirut-online.net/portal/article.php?id=3142).

Wissam Chidiak, a speech therapist, stated (*Daily Star*, 2009) that with the increasing importance of English, the number of children who attend tri-and multilingual schools as well as preschools has also increased. Another confirmation to the growing importance of English but a concern for the decrease for French is made by a founder of a preschool establishment in Beirut, who stated that 'Parents realize that English is getting more and more important in a globalized world, but at the same time, they do not want children to lose the French language' (*Daily Star,* 2009).

Further, a clinical psychologist also noticing the trend in language acquisition in Lebanon remarked on the learning of three languages by children which is typical in Lebanon stating 'Imagine a two-and-a-half year old toddler who is able to communicate in three different linguistic codes, even though they are not perfect. Imagine a child who can watch cartoons in English, then switch to a French channel and at the same time talk to his parents in Arabic' (*Daily Star*, 2009).

While most schools in Lebanon still teach French as a second language, the number of students learning it has fallen by nearly 10 percent over the past decade, according to the Lebanese Ministry of Education *(Daily Star*, 2009). 'Today, there are a lot of new English-language schools and many schools that follow the French program are opening English departments' stated Denis Gaillard, the head of the cultural section at the French Embassy in Beirut, and admitted that 'it was becoming more of a challenge to promote the language of Moliere in a region where English is omnipresent' (Moussaoui 2009).

However, 'The demand for French remains strong,' said Olivier Garro, head of the Beirut-based Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie 'In the Gulf region, speaking French has become an advantage. Someone who speaks three languages is sure to be chosen for a job over someone that doesn't,' he added. Moussaoui (2009) reports on a young girl, Anna Abu Jaoude, 19 years of age who stated that she was taking French courses in Beirut in the French Cultural Center in order to be competitive and said 'There is no question that English is easier to learn and offers more opportunities, but French is a plus'. A professor at one of the universities in Lebanon told the newspaper, *Daily Star*, 2009 that he believes that 'French will not disappear because it is part of our culture. We still publish quite a bit of literature in French and our judicial system is largely inspired by the French system.'

There is also concern that Arabic has been seconded or placed on an equal footing to these other languages and which may decline and/or negatively influence the Lebanese' national identity (Joseph, 2004). Some researchers (Nasr, 2000, Maalouf-El-Alfy, 2000; Bacha, 2010), however, show how some poets and writers bring together the culture of the East and West through their writings and the study of literature.

V. LANGUAGE POLICY--THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

There are several institutions of higher learning in Lebanon. The main foreign ones are the American University of Beirut (AUB) founded by American missionaries in 1886 and the Lebanese American University (LAU) founded by American missionaries in 1924. These two universities, modeled on the American type universities, have been trying to keep the standard of education equitable to those in similar institutions in the US as well as make developments in order to keep them at the cutting edge and compete with the many 'less prestigious' universities who charge much less fees and that are mushrooming in the country. Some of the latter are receiving international monetary or/and academic support from European and US institutions. Nauffal and Nasser (2007) report on a comparative study of the organizational cultural qualities of American Universities and American-based universities in Lebanon and conclude that "A supportive management culture - one that encourages the introduction of innovative teaching methods, the use of modern technologies, the production of collective research and continuous self-appraisal and evaluation - may help these young universities create a niche for themselves within Lebanese and regional communities" (p. 59).

Two well-established universities are the French university, Saint-Joseph University, founded in the late 19th century by the French, and a state university, The Lebanese University which has the largest student body in country. Both AUB and LAU use English as the medium of instruction and follow the American system of course credits and semesters. Both universities have an English as a Foreign Language Program (EFL) similar to those at comparable US universities, which prepares students to cope with their academic course work.

Many private institutes offer pre-university language courses in English and French (as well as additional languages such as Spanish, German, and Italian for higher studies abroad or for interest) and some universities offer Remedial language courses, which cater to students who have not passed the required entrance exams. As part of program development and accreditation requirements at the university level, the Remedial Programs have begun to be assessed for their efficiency in helping students perform successfully in higher studies (e.g. Nasser & Goff-Kfouri 2008).

VI. CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

Cultural background has been an influencing factor on learning. In the Lebanese case, the collective type culture in contrast to the individualized culture of the West is very apparent in the classroom (Ayyash-Abdo, 2001). In the former, the teachers are the givers of knowledge and as such students cannot question their authority but obey their directions. There is very little exchange and discussion in classrooms and group work where peers are given leadership roles is not looked upon by students as a learning experience; whereas, in more Western type classroom teaching and learning is carried out in a more informal manner and the learner is the center (Kibbi 2003).

The multicultural make up of Lebanon makes it a place similar to the US in that we can see it as a possible 'melting pot'; but unlike the West, the people from each 'community' strongly abide by their way of life and traditions although in educational spheres there is an attempt to develop tolerance, positive attitudes to others and building of cooperative and team spirit attitudes. Khoury (2003) reports on the complexity of defining culture, but attempts to give a standard 'small' view based on the perceptions of theorists in the field who view culture '… as processes in the making … dynamic…involve change, modification, and dialogue… agents are skilled at negotiation and problem-solving … and these [provide] basic guidelines for behavior..' (pp.130-133). Applied to the teaching of languages in the national curriculum, Khoury (2003) reports that the curriculum focuses on '…creating a citizen who is proficient in at least one other language … to promote openness to and interaction with other cultures' (Khoury, 2003, p.131). Translated into the teaching of second languages, cooperative content-theme based activities are drawn upon which focus on developing students' critical thinking and problem solving skills on issues relating the target language.

Chami-Sather and Kretscher's (2005) studies on Lebanese and American elementary children indicated how the cultural background affected the speaking situation in solving problems. The Lebanese children would speak a great deal and constantly interrupt one another and show eagerness; while the American children would wait for their turns and quietly discuss the issue. They state that "Focusing on the cultural linguistic behavior in academic settings, linguistic moves, nonverbal clues, and using that kind of information to build qualitatively facilitating educational processes would provide a great achievement of students …if well managed, might become aiding tools for teachers in rethinking their classroom management for better results" (p.29).

Gaining this cultural awareness and adaptability, according to the authors, contributes to better student learning. Joudi, Karaky, and Kurdi (2003) in their qualitative study on 7-8 year old from a middle to low class background in one of the schools in Beirut, Lebanon, observed during group and class activities in learning English that the students were highly engaged in the lessons as the personality of the teacher was positive and friendly, both culturally determined characteristics when teaching children and would only speak in English as directed by the teacher. However, the students code switched between Arabic and English in student group activities often resorting to their L1 Arabic native tongue. The children would also call the teacher 'Miss" in referring to her as teachers in the Lebanese context are highly respected and are always addressed formally which is a culturally determined practice. The authors conclude that content and style of learning a second language are determined by cultural factors, but recommend larger scale research to confirm and validate these preliminary results.

Shaaban and Ghaith's (2002) ethnographical study through a survey on 176 randomly chosen university students showed that the cultural, religious and socio-economic class influenced their perceptions of the vitality of the three languages: Arabic, French and English. Results indicated that Arabic was vital for national identity and communication with family, French for entertainment and elementary education, and English for higher studies, technology and commerce and that the Muslim sample spoke English more than the other religions in the samples.

Studies (El-Hussari, 2007; Diab, R. 2000) on raising *cultural awareness* as it is defined in the new national curriculum and which basically deals with developing students' knowledge and tolerance of international diversity, report that classroom teachers need to implement relevant activities in the classroom. Ghosn (2007) has argued for using literature, specifically stories in the classroom, to raise young learners' cultural awareness and civic responsibility. She strongly believes that through the students reading texts and being involved in group activities, the young learner in Lebanon can be better oriented to the values of a democratic and peace building life that they need in a country torn apart by war and sectarian struggles. Akl (2007) reports that the infrastructure of Lebanese schools and universities is influenced by the multicultural/multilingual profile of Lebanon, which causes many conflicts and disagreements. She attempts to give solutions to this by comparing the Lebanese educational system to that of the Western liberal-secular educational system and concludes on the significance of activities that resolve conflicts. Author (2010) investigates students' perceptions in one university EFL Program on the novel over a semester and how they view it helping in their developing their English language skills. The students' reported positive feedback concerning their improvement as well as widening their cultural awareness of peoples and places.

A very important aspect of teaching culture in the classroom is the concern of some researchers as to how to preserve the 'national culture' and at the same time expose the students to the cultures of the West, which also is a difficult task (Diab, R. 2000; Diab, N. 2000; Maalouf-El-Alfy 2000; Nasr 2000). Maalouf-El-Alfy (2000) reports on the difficulties she has faced in university classes where the students do not seem to respond positively to the literature through which culture is transmitted and often do not see the relevance to their studies or lives. Maalouf-El-Alfy (2000) recommends a reader-response method that she has successfully experimented with in which students would freely react to a piece of literature and then the differences and similarities to the Lebanese culture discussed in a comfortable and tolerant class atmosphere.

This difficulty is also coupled with the fear that some teachers and researchers have that there may be a national cultural 'distinction' due to the strong foreign influence. Nasr (2000) recommends that one way to keep the Lebanese cultural heritage alive and thus its language is through the study of Lebanon's literature which 'can address international issues of global appeal and at the same time nurture the specific national heritage' (p.49). She illustrates this through the poems of May Rihani, a famous Lebanese writer, who traveled to over fifty countries and wrote poetry in which both East and West meet.

Nasr (2000) argues that although we live in a age of globalization and students are exposed in their lives at school and society to the many cultures especially the West and to English, the danger of losing their national identity and culture can be lessened by their reading literature of writers who are bridges between the East and West. The works of May Rihani who has lived in the West and East and writes in both Arabic and English illustrating well the need to expose students to the diversity of cultures in the modern world and at the same time preserves the culture of the homeland. Nasr (2000) gives an excerpt from one of her poems written while Rihani (1992, Washington D.C., Platform International, p.72 translated by Nasr 2000) was in Washington D.C. during the war in Beirut, Lebanon showing this bridging between two cultures through a poem.

…
And the sky scrapers of New York

…
Rain carries me there
To my village

Another excerpt from her travels in a poem 'I Travel' (Rihani 1992, p.7 translated by Nasr 2000) shows the bringing together of the cultures through language.

I travel

…
On the other end lies part of here
The borders fade when I tolerate

…
The languages are understood when I listen
The globe becomes smaller ….

Saad Khalaf's (2009) research is particularly interesting in this context on narrative reports from students who come from mixed nationalities and cultures attending a creative writing course at the American University of Beirut. They tell of their problems and issues of 'belonging' and how through writing in English they are able to express to one another their cultural alienation to the cultural heritages of which they are part and to reflect on how the situation in the country has left them 'homeless'; yet they can communicate this common feeling and find comfort in expression through language.

VII. MOTIVATIONAL AND ATTITUDINAL INFLUENCES ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

Students in both high school and university have different attitudes towards foreign language, which affects their motivation. For example, many believe that studying foreign languages is a passport to the foreign universities and acceptance to higher institutions of learning abroad. Thus, they are highly motivated to learn foreign languages. Although students may need to enroll in government public schools and the government Lebanese University where Arabic is mostly stressed, as they cannot afford the higher tuition fees of the private schools and universities, they try hard to learn other languages in outside language centers or with private teachers. Also, the Lebanese look upon the foreign schools and universities as being prestigious by comparison and having a better educational system than those that are Lebanese supported mirroring that of the West. Diab, R. (2000) indicated that male learners are instrumentally motivated to learn English for career purposes, while women along with this also see the advantage of the social prestige that knowing English gives, perhaps mirroring the neopatriarchal Lebanese society in which males are dominant (Ayyash-Abdo et. al. 2009).

Akar's (2007) recent study of two pre-university classrooms on their perceptions of how they learn and their attitudes towards learning and citizenship, indicated that they valued humanistic and democratic principles while favoring traditional methods of learning such as memorization and teacher autonomy. This paradox, claims the author, is a challenge to the students in their learning experiences. These citizenship studies go hand in hand with leadership skills often fostered in language classrooms through critical thinking and problem solving activities. Greenfiled and Akkary (1998) carried out a qualitative study on principals in private and public secondary schools and through questionnaires, interviews and observations of 33 principals found different perceptions of their roles between the Lebanese and the American and neighboring contexts. Principals from the private sector tend to have more authority than those in the public sector who have to enforce the decisions made by the Ministry. This is similar to the situation in other countries such as Jordan and Saudi Arabia. However, when compared to their American counterparts, the religious and socio-cultural factors influence the principals in Lebanon, which is not the case in the American model. These roles affect language policy and methodologies in the classroom depending upon type of school and context.

Students' attitudes and beliefs towards foreign languages have been investigated in the Lebanese language context and indicate that teachers should be aware of their students' beliefs and attitudes towards learning a foreign language and what type of feedback they expect in the learning process (Diab, 2010; Diab 2006, 2009; Yazigi 1994). Diab (2006) study is based on 284 university EFL students who filled out a questionnaire in four parts: '1) beliefs about foreign language learning in general, (2) beliefs about learning English, (3) beliefs about learning French, and (4) beliefs about the learning of different languages in Lebanon' (p. 84). The main results indicated that students are instrumentally motivated to learn English, which they consider 'easier' than French to learn and they consider English more important

than the other two languages. The results further showed that the beliefs of the students were related to the political and socio-cultural situations in teaching foreign languages in Lebanon. Yazigi's (1994) also indicated the relation with the teaching context in Lebanon that students are more instrumentally motivated to learn English and value it as a passport to a better learning future. Diab's (2009) study on 30 EFL teachers who did not have extensive teaching experience in an English medium university, showed that often times teachers have beliefs of student learning that are not in line with those of their students. For instance, she found that teachers believe that learners should attain near native English accent and student work should be edited for total accuracy. Diab (2009) recommends that teacher workshops could raise awareness of the teachers' role and expectations more in line with students' acquisition of a foreign language. There seems to be a more interactive teaching/learning model coming alive in foreign language classrooms in Lebanon among students, peers and teachers, which shows gains in language proficiency. Sinno's (2008) study at one English medium university indicated that students' were motivated extrinsically to learn English as it opened doors to study and work on an international level and that political views did not negatively impact their learning and using the language, whether French or English.

VIII. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION INFLUENCING FACTORS

Language teachers in Lebanon have often questioned which language should be learned first. Since Arabic is their home language in most cases, others being Armenian, Italian, French. Author (1999) recommends they learn their mother tongue first and then the other language by five and give them opportunities to use it. However, this is not the case. Young learners are often acquiring the second language these days more rapidly than their mother tongue as even at home, the parents are speaking the second languages, English and/or French. It is indeed a complex multilingual situation.

Thonhauser's (2000) study in interviewing six Lebanese individuals shows the complexity of the multilingual context in Lebanon and notes that the situation of diglossia adds to it. He reports that many prefer to follow a career in English-medium universities as it gives them more career opportunities. Also, they prefer to write in English and/or French rather than in Arabic as the latter has to be in the literary form, which they do not like. Shaaban and Ghaith (1999) report on the bilingual, trilingual and multilingual profile of the Lebanese and the code-switching that is highly predominant in both private and public sectors, a natural characteristic of the Lebanese. However, they do voice the concern of researchers that that this multilingual situation may be negative more than positive in the sense that it may lead in language education to those who may not have any real proficiency levels in any of the languages and that Arabic is losing popularity compared to the foreign languages (p.12). Yet, they end on a more positive tone that with the declining economic condition, more students are joining the state Lebanese University and public schools where Arabic is the medium of instruction which may restore Arabic on equal footing with the English and French. Ghaith and Shabaan (1996) also note that "… despite the spread of French and English as instructional languages, the strength of both languages remains limited to the context of education, and are not widely used for ceremonial, societal and communicative functions" (p.104).

IX. CONCLUSION

Lebanon's multicultural and multilingual profile has made it a country of cultural and lingual diversity. Its language educational system and policies reflect this profile and have had a long and complex history, one that has gone through many phases influenced by socio-political factors and outside influence of missionaries who brought their languages and educational systems and policies. Although the national language remains Arabic, the medium of instruction at schools and universities depends largely on those who support and administer the institution. The two main second languages remain English and French with many other additional languages also spoken and used for educational instruction. It is a plethora of peoples carrying with them their linguistic and cultural characteristics. Education in Lebanon is a very important part of the country's prosperity and English is quickly becoming the dominant second language, a means for prestige, study and communication (Shaaban & Gaith, 1999). Not a complex, but a way to survive and compete on the global arena.

It is in this Lebanese language context that teachers and students come together to teach and learn, to acquire the relevant language background and to be exposed to the different cultures that surround the language learning experience. Our language story ends here for a while with the learner carrying a 'language and cultural baggage', always becoming heavier, giving researchers, practitioners and curriculum designers more food for stories to tell of the inter relationships among the learners' languages and cultures and the curricula that attempt to address these and the learner that is 'produced' to communicate on the global arena which   many travelers have found less and less complex as they continue their travels to our shores.

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Nahla Nola Bacha has a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from the University of Leicester, UK. She is currently an Associate Professor in English and the Assistant Dean of the School of Arts and Sciences at the Lebanese American University in Byblos, Lebanon.

She has published extensively in the field of English language teaching and learning. Some of her publications are Bacha, N. N. (2011) Teaching EFL/ESL Students Critique Writing In Pennington and Pauline Burton (Eds.) In *The College Writing Toolkit: Tried and Tested Ideas for Teaching College Writing* (pp.251-280). London: Equinox Publishers; Bacha, N.N. & Bahous; R.(2010). Student and teacher perceptions of plagiarism in academic writing. *Writing and Pedagogy* 2(2), 251- 280. Bacha, N.N. Teaching the academic argument in an EFL environment. *International Journal of English for Academic Purposes. 9, 229-241.*

Her current research interests are in academic writing at the university level in the EFL/ESL classroom.

Rima Bahous has an Ed. D. in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from the University of Leicester, UK. She is currently an Associate Professor in Education and the Director of the Center for Program and Learning Assessment at the Lebanese American University in Beirut, Lebanon.

Some of her publications are Bahous, R. & Nabhani, M. (2011). Assessing education program learning outcomes. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 23(1), 21 – 39; Nabhani, M. & Bahous, R. (2010). Continuing professional development in Lebanese schools. *Teacher Development 14(2), 207 – 224; and* Fidaoui, D., Bahous, R., & Bacha, N.N, (2010). CALL in Lebanese elementary ESL writing classrooms. *Computer Assisted Language Learning 23 (2).* 151 – 168.

Her current research interests are in program and learning outcomes assessment.

Linguistic Deviation in Poetry Translation: An Investigation into the English Renderings of Shamlu's Verse

Hossein Pirnajmuddin
English department, University of Isfahan, Iran
Email: pirnajmuddin@fgn.ui.ac.ir

Vahid Medhat
University of Isfahan, Iran
Email: vahid.medhat@yahoo.com

Abstract—**Poetic diction has its own characteristic features of which anyone who is engaged in the translation of poetry should have a good understanding. Poetry is not merely a matter of rhyme and rhythm. 'Blank verse' is free from such aspects but has still its own poeticality. According to Leech (1969), what makes poetry is the linguistic deviation a poet manipulates in his poetry and therefore linguistic deviation is regarded by him a means of creating artistic beauty. He enumerates eight types of deviations. Since form and content are inseparable in poetry, the translator of poetry should do his best to transfer these two. The translator should also pay attention to linguistic deviations and try to convey them in the translation as far as possible. So far little attention has been paid to linguistic deviations of Persian poetry in connection with translation hence this study tries to investigate this matter by analyzing the deviations in a poem of Shamlu and its English translation rendered by Firuze Papan-Matin. It is shown that though in Shamlu's poetry semantic, historical and lexical deviations are dominant and determining factors of his poetic style, in the translation, it is only semantic deviation which has a high degree of transference and most of the historical and lexical deviations are ignored, resulting in a great loss in the translation concerning the stylistic features of Shamlu's poetry.**

Index Terms—**linguistic deviations, foregrounding, poetry translation, style, Shamlu**

I. INTRODUCTION

Poetic language, at least in some theorizations, differs from the everyday, ordinary language. In ordinary usage, language is mostly automatic, and words are used in a way that does not attract attention, but in poetry the language is used in such a special way that the reader makes a distinction between poetic language and the daily or usual one. But how is this differentiation made?

Before dealing with this question let us begin with the very notion of language as poetry cannot be imagined outside language. There have been many different definitions for the term. Pei (1966, P. 141) defines language as "a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings." As Hall (1968, P.18) puts it, "language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-arbitrary systems".

What is common in these definitions is that 'language is a means of communication'. However, language is not just a way of communicating daily needs. It also speaks about the cultural loads of centuries, beliefs, traditions and thoughts. To put it in different words, language performs different functions. Jakobson (1981) assumes six basic functions for language: emotive, conative, phatic, metalingual, referential and poetic. Among these functions, poetic function is related to the aesthetic and artistic aspects of language and is mainly used in literature and poetry.

Although Jacobson does not reduce the domain of poetic function to poetry, he considers it to be the dominant and determining function of verbal art, whereas in all other verbal activities "… it acts as a subsidiary, accessory constituent" (p. 25). Halliday uses the term 'textual function' and Martinet 'aesthetic function' to refer to this function of language (Halliday and Hassan, 1985). Literary language and poetry as a part of it use this function to a great extent whereby making the language more beautiful.

In principle, the language of poetry comes into existence when some norms are broken or deviated from. According to Shafii-Kadkani (1989), "poetry is nothing but breaking the norms of ordinary and logical language" (p. 240). Shamisa (2004) also believes that there is almost no literary work that does not involve a sort of deviation from ordinary language and assumes that the subject of linguistic deviation should not be neglected because in some cases all of the importance and influence of a literary work depends on it (p. 158).

Russian formalists considered literature as a special use of language which achieves its distinctness by deviating from and distorting practical language (in Selden, Widdowson, Brooker, 1997, p. 32). The proper study of literature, they declared, is literature itself. To Study literature, they asserted, is to study 'poetics', which is "an analysis of a work's constituent parts- its linguistic and structural features- or its 'form' " (in Bresseler, 2007, p. 51). As they argued, form includes what they call 'devices' which comprise the artfulness and literariness of any text.

The formalists' chief focus of literary analysis was the examination of a text's 'literariness', the language used in the text. They believed that literary language is different from everyday language. Unlike ordinary speech, literary language foregrounds itself. Through devices such as imagery, structure, paradox, rhyme scheme etc, literary language identifies itself as deviations from everyday speech patterns and produces the defining feature of literariness, i.e. 'defamiliarization'. Introduced by the Russian formalist Victor Shoklovsky, defamiliarization is the process of making strange the familiar: "art exists in order to recover for us the sensation of life which is diminished in the automatized routine of every day experience" (in Baldick, 2004, p. 62). The result of this process of defamiliarization is that it enables us once again to see the world anew, in its all splendor.

Mukarovsky (1932), a member of Prague Linguistic Circle, developed the formalist concept of 'defamiliarization' into the more systematic 'foregrounding' which he defined as 'the aesthetically intentional distortion of the linguistic components' (in Selden, Widdowson, Brooker, 1997, p. 38). Foregrounding causes the reader "to draw attention from the putative paraphrasal meaning of a message 'what is said' to focus on the message itself 'how it is said'" (Fowler, 1987, p. 98).

Leech (1969) has applied the concept of foregrounding to poetry. He considers the foregrounded figure as 'linguistic deviation', while the background is the language itself (p. 57). According to Leech, It is a very general principle of artistic communication that "a work of art in some way deviates from norms which we, as members of society, have learnt to expect in the medium used" (1969, p. 56). In a work of art, as he argues, the artistic deviation 'sticks out' from its background, the automatic system, like a figure in the foreground of a visual field. In case of poetry, "the foregrounded figure is the linguistic deviation, and the background is the language – the system taken for granted in any talk of deviation" (p. 57).

Leech (1969) believes that, what makes poetry is the linguistic deviations the poet manipulates in his poetry and therefore linguistic deviation is regarded by him a means for poetic creation. For him, a linguistic deviation is artistically significant when a. it communicates something, b. it communicates what was intended by its author and c. it is judged or felt by the reader to be significant (p. 59). He introduces eight types of linguistic deviation in poetry which are as follows:

1. Lexical deviation, 2. Grammatical deviation, 3. Phonological deviation, 4. Graphological deviation, 5. Semantic deviation, 6. Dialectical deviation, 7. Deviation of register, and 8. Deviation of historical period.

In Shamlu's poetry, which is the focus of this study, deviations play an important part. In other words, the significance of Shamlu's poetry is his artistic use of language that is to a great extent achieved through linguistic deviations. For example, consider this line from Shamlu:

ما بی چرا زندگانیم آنان به چرا مرگ خویش آگاهانند

(We are the reasonless-living. They are of their death-reason aware.)

And its putative paraphrasal meaning:

ما نمیدانیم چرا زنده ایم اما آنها میدانند چرا میمیرند

(We don't know why we are alive. They know why they are dying.)

We count the first sentence as a piece of poetry while we do not feel any poetic element to be in the second one. In fact, the poeticality of the first line is due to the linguistic deviations Shamlu has manipulated in the sentence.

How to translate these deviations and if they are translatable, is the challenging issue presented to the translator. The translator must be able to recognize these deviations and also be sufficiently skilful in conveying them in the translation.

As a matter of fact, translation of poetry as the most intense form of literature has always been a matter of debate. It is a generally accepted view that the translation of poetry is the most difficult, challenging and possibly rewarding form of translation. This famous saying by Robert Frost "Poetry is what is lost in translation" is often quoted in literature to highlight the difficulty of the task (in Baker, 1998, p. 170). Jakobson (1959) holds that "Everything is translatable except poetry because it is the very form, the very phonetic quality of a poem in a language which makes a poem" (in Lodge, 1998, p. 18).

Since the style of poetry is more imaginative, concentrated, complex, and powerful than that of ordinary prose, it is very difficult, sometimes impossible, to transfer all the linguistic features of a poem from one language into another. Nevertheless, it is necessary for the translator of poetry to pay a close attention to the style matters, for style marks the authorship of a poem and also distinguishes poetry translation from other kinds of translations.

To find the style of a certain poem, the instances of linguistic deviation should be investigated. Afterwards, the translator should try his best to reproduce these qualities so that the same effect and impression could be reproduced for the target reader.

This study will, therefore, aim at comparing the linguistic deviations of one of Shamlu's poems with its English translation by Firuze Papan Matin to see whether the translator has been aware of such deviations and what has happened to them in the process of translation.

II. TYPES OF DEVIATIONS

In what follows a brief survey of the classification of linguistic deviations, as introduced by Leech, has been presented. The English examples are from Leech (1969).

A. Lexical Deviation

There is lexical deviation when the poet invents new words. Neologisms are examples of this. Here, however, the term neologism is not limited to coinage of words. It includes, in a broad sense, novelty in using words. Therefore, some compounds which represent a type of innovation can also be regarded as instances of lexical deviation:

The **widow-making unchilding unfathering** deeps. (Hopkins)

By inventing new words and combinations, a poet may help expanding and developing the language- something probably seen in Shamlu's poetry. In fact, using different kinds of combinations is the characteristic feature of Shamlu's poetry. Although some of these combinations have already been used by others, a great number of them have been tapped for the first time by Shamlu himself.

وشیر**آهنکوه** مردی
از این گونه عاشق
میدان خونین سرنوشت
به پاشنه آشیل
در نوشت.(شاملو)

B. Grammatical Deviation

It is a kind of deviation in which the poet disregards the rules of sentence or syntactic features:

Our **heart's charity's health's** fire, … . (Hopkins)

روزی که چرخ از گل ما کوزه ها کند
زنهارکاسه سر ما پر شراب **کن** (حافظ)

C. Phonological Deviation

This is the deviation in sound or pronunciation which is done deliberately in regard to preserving the rhyme, as when the noun **wind** is pronounced like the verb **wind**.

Leech considers the phonological deviation as "irregularities of pronunciation":

دو دهان داریم گویا همچو نی
یک دهان **پنهانست** در لبهای وی (مولوی)

D. Graphological Deviation

This is a type of deviation that is related to the poet's disregard of the rules of writing. It is the line-by-line arrangement of the poem on the page with irregular margins. The graphological deviation or the special way of putting words and lines on the page may add a sort of second meaning to the original meaning of the verse:

seeker of truth
follow no path
all paths lead where
truth is here (Cummings)

با خویشتن، نشستن
در خویشتن
ش
ک
س
ت
ن   (حمید مصدق)

E. Semantic Deviation

It is a sort of deviation related to the irrational element of meaning in poetry. It leads the mind to comprehension on a figurative plane. Concerning semantic deviation, Leech believes that in all great poetry this irrational element is present. He considers it so important an element of poetic language that "poets and critics alike have tended to consider it the only thing that really matters in poetry" (1969, p. 49).

While encountering semantic deviation, the figurative meaning becomes necessary because the literal meaning gets absurd. In other words, semantic deviation occurs when the literal interpretation of a sentence or a line of poetry is nonsensical, and there remains no choice but figurative interpretation of the sentence:

The child is father of the man. (Wordsworth's)

من نمازم را وقتی میخوانم
که اذانش را باد، گفته باشد سر گلدسته ی سرو
(سهراب سپهری)

F. Dialectal Deviation

Dialectal deviation, or to use Leech's term 'dialectism', refers to the borrowing of features of socially or regionally defined dialects. It occurs when the poet enters into his poetry words or structures which are from a dialect different from that of standard language; using words like heydeguyes (a type of dance), rontes (young bullocks), wimble (nimble),… by Spenser is of this type of deviation.

قاصد روزان ابری

داروگ

کی میرسد باران   (نیما یوشیج)

G. Deviation of Register

In poetry, it refers to borrowing language from other non-poetic registers or using the features of different registers in the same text:

And many a bandit, not so gently born
Kills vermin every winter with the Quorn. (Auden)

عصر عظمت غول آسای عمارت ها

و دروغ

عصر رمه های عظیم گرسنگی

و وحشتبارترین سکوت ها

هنگامی که گله های عظیم انسانی

به دهان کوره ها می رفت

و حالا اگه دلت خواست

میتونی با یه فریاد

گلوتو پاره کنی

دیوارا از بتن مسلحن   (شاملو)

H. Deviation of Historical Period

In this kind of deviation the poet uses archaic words or structures which are no longer used in standard language to enhance the aesthetic or musical value of the poem. Leech calls historical deviation 'archaism' and defines it as "the survival of the past into the language of present time" (1969, p, 52):

The association of man and woman
In daunsinge, signifying matrimonie-
A dignified and commodious sacrament,
Two and two, necessarye coniunction,
Holding eche other by the hand or the arm
Which betokeneth concorde.   (T.S. Eliot)

غبار آلوده، از جهان

تصویری **باژگونه** در **آبگینه** ی بیقرار...   (شاملو)

III. Methodology

A. Materials and Procedure

The main approach adopted in this research is the one proposed by Leech (1969). Leech believes that what creates poetry is the linguistic deviation the poet manipulates in his poetry and, therefore, linguistic deviation is regarded by him as a means for creating poetry. But deviations are subject to some restrictions. Not all kind of deviation from the norms of standard language, as Leech asserts, is a means of creating artistic beauty. He introduces eight types of linguistic deviations: lexical, phonological, semantic, dialectal, syntactic, graphological, deviation of historical period, and deviation of register types.

The materials for this research include a poem of Shamlu entitled 'nocturnal/shabane' and its English translation by Firuze Papan-Matin (2005). In the light of the classification of linguistic deviations made by Leech (1969), the present study aims at analyzing the linguistic deviations in this poem via comparing it with the English translation to see to what extent these deviations are translatable and what has happened to them in the process of translation.

To do so, the instances of linguistic deviations in Shamlu's poem are specified and compared with the translation. Some types of linguistic deviations introduced by Leech are not present in this poem because they are not dominant in Shamlu's poetry; however, this study tries to analyze all linguistic deviations present in the poem to answer these questions:

1. Which types of linguistic deviations presented by Leech are dominant in this poem of Shamlu?
2. To what extent has the English translation been successful in conveying the linguistic deviations of the poem?

B. Ahmad Shamlu and Blank Verse

For some people when the norm of standard language is changed by rhyme and meter, the language turns into poetry. But Poetry cannot be reduced to rhyme and meter. Free verse is a kind of poetry in which meter does not follow a clear

pattern, and the length of lines is irregular and ever-changing. 'Vers blanc' or 'blank verse' is also a kind of verse that can be free from both meter and rhyme at the same time as it bears an unanticipated music of its own. The music in blank verse is an "offspring of the constitutive elements of the individual poem and does not abide by stylistic rules imposed on the poem from without" (Papan-Matin, 2005, p. 27).

Ahmad Shamlu is one of the most celebrated figures of contemporary Iranian poetry. His poetry, which is the focus of this study, is characterized by the special use of language which results in poeticality of his poetry. Shamlu found it necessary to set poetry free from the traditional ties of prosodic meter and introduced his own style of poetry as 'vers blanc' and accordingly a new period in Persian poetry came into existence. As Shamlu himself asserts, "I regard rhythm as an external and imposing element: something causing deviation of poet's mind and hindering natural creation of a poem" (in Hariri, 1993, p. 50).

He substituted prosodic regularities with 'internal music' and paid attention to the 'change in the inner structure of the poem' which, as Mojabi (1998) observes, "is based on understanding the music and harmony of words and artistically handling the language that culminates in the achieved composition of the poem" (p. 74). According to Hoghughi, "the music in Shamlu's poetry is not based upon any regular pattern, but something which is achieved as a result of his selection of musical and ear-pleasing words and his mastery in placing such words near each other" (1997, p. 14).

Shamlu believed that a poem reflects a specific instance of experience that brings with it its own musical expressions. He (in Hariri, 1993, p. 89) describes this poetry as an event, an intense instance of illumination with a life of its own. For him, writing poetry is not a conscious, deliberate activity but, the poem's sounds, words, and voices are not revealed to him until the instant when the poem halts him in order to disclose itself to him.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The poem and instances of linguistic deviations:

شبانه
Nocturnal
میان خورشیدهای همیشه
T1: Your beauty anchors me
زیبایی تو
Among eternal suns:
لنگری ست-
A sun that fills me
خورشیدی که
Beyond the need of stars
از سپیده دم همه ستارگان
بی نیازم می کند.

In the first three lines of the original poem there are two similes: likening of beauty to the sun, and beauty to anchor. They can be regarded as instances of semantic deviations. In the translation, one of these similes is not present; and for the other one the translator has employed a metaphor in her translation as 'your beauty anchors me' which is an instance of semantic deviation.

نگاهت
شکست ستمگری ست-
Your look is a victory ongoing
نگاهی که عریانی روح مرا
Over heartlessness
از مهر
The look that clothed with love
جامه ای کرد
My naked soul

Here, again, there are two instances of semantic deviation: the metaphor in the first sentence 'negahat shekast setamgarist'; and the personification in 'oryanie ruh'. These deviations are successfully transferred in the translation as 'your look is a victory ongoing' and 'naked soul' respectively. But the historical deviation in the words 'jame' and 'oryan' is neglected in the translation.

بدان سان که کنونم
So that now
شب بی روزن هرگز
Night without a flicker of hope
چنان نماید که کنایتی طنزآلود بوده است.
Seems ironic, a fanciful joke

Here the phrase 'shabe birozane hargez' represents a special way of using language because of its brevity and precision; it can be regarded as a sort of grammatical deviation as the arrangement of the parts of the sentence is

different from the normal arrangement of the parts of a sentence in the standard language. This sort of deviation is, however, neglected in the translation in spite of the fact that the translation is semantically correct; this phrase is translated as 'night without a flicker of hope'. Also, using the words 'bedansan' and 'kenayat' and 'konunam' indicates deviations of historical period which is a kind of deviation not present in the translation. Again 'tanzalud' represents a sort of lexical deviation which is translated as 'fanciful'.

و چشمانت با من گفتند

And your eyes convinced me

که فردا

That tomorrow will be born again

روز دیگری ست-

There is a metaphor (personification) or semantic deviation in the first line as 'eye' cannot 'say' anything to anybody; it is rendered as 'your eyes conceived me' which does not include the semantic deviation of the original poem because the verb 'goftan/ to say' is translated as 'to convince'. Also the special use of the preposition 'ba' instead of 'be' is a case of archaism which is not conveyed.

آنک چشمانی که خمیر مایه ی مهر است!

Your eyes the essence of love:

وینک مهر تو:

That love itself is the armoury

نبرد افزاری

That fits me to grip, to greet, my destiny.

تا با تقدیر خویش پنجه در پنجه کنم.

The words 'anak' and 'inak' are instances of historical deviation. These deviations are not transferred. The compounds 'khamirmaye' and 'nabardafzar' are instances of lexical deviations, though not neologisms, but in the translation they are not conveyed as compound and are translated as 'essence of love' and 'armoury' respectively.

آفتاب را در فراسوهای افق پنداشته بودم.

I had conceived the sun far beyond the horizon.

به جز عزیمت نابهنگامم گزیری نبود

No escape but my precocious will-

چنین انگاشته بودم.

I imagined it so.

آیدا فسخ عزیمت جاودانه بود.

Ayda: the dissolution of that eternal will

Here, 'pendashtan', 'engashtan' and 'azimat' are historical deviations; these deviations are not present in the translation. There is also a notorious case of mistranslation: the word 'azimat', which has the meaning of 'to go somewhere', is translated as 'will' which is completely different in meaning.

میان آفتابهای همیشه

Your beauty anchors me

زیبایی تو

Among eternal suns

لنگری ست-

نگاهت

شکست ستمگری ست-

Your look victorious

و چشمانت با من گفتند

And your eyes

که فردا

Conceived me

روز دیگری ست.

That tomorrow will be born again.

Though Shamlu's poetry as blank verse is not restricted by the mandate of rhyme and rhythm, in some cases he uses words which rhyme, and this can somehow improve the efficacy of his expression. Here the words 'digar', 'setamgar' and 'langar' rhyme; however, the translation has failed to transfer these musical elements. Again, there are some repeated instances of semantic deviations in these lines (already discussed).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Safavi (2004) in his book *From Linguistics to Literature: poetry (2ⁿᵈ volume)* reexamines the subject of linguistic deviation as introduced by Leech and provides some Persian examples for each kind of deviations. After detailed discussion of the issue of deviation in Persian poetry, he concludes that among these eight types of linguistic deviation only five of them can be regarded as tools for creating artistic beauty, which are historical, graphological, lexical, register and especially semantic deviations. As he argues, phonological, and grammatical deviation are used as a means

of preserving rhythm and cannot be regarded as tools for creating poetry; and in the case of dialectal deviation, though it can be effective for recognizing the style of a poet, it cannot be counted as an instance of irregularity or deviation, because using borrowed words is also common in the standard language and cannot be regarded as a tool for creating poetry.

As he argues, all kinds of deviations are made as a result of a 'selection' on the paradigmatic axis of language so that on the syntagmatic axis they are not compatible with the existing rules of automatic language. What creates poetry, he (2004, p. 169) continues, are the kinds of deviations which make the 'senses/مدلول' more distant from the 'referents/مصداق', and that is why they are reality-elusive. Among the kinds of deviations, he asserts, semantic deviation makes the greatest distance between sense and referent and can include numerous devices which are classifiable (for example, simile or metaphor) on the basis of their function on the syntagmatic and paradigmatic poles.

Safavi, then, makes a classification of these five poetic elements on the basis of their frequency. As mentioned before, Safavi believes that distancing sense from its referent of outside world creates imaginary speech, that is, a speech which is naturally reality-elusive. So, in terms of the distance created between sense and referent, he specifies the frequency of each deviation theoretically. Safavi provides the following graph for deviations in terms of their frequency:

Semantic deviation > lexical deviation > historical deviation > register deviation > graphological deviation

In this graph, each deviation is less creative in comparison to the deviation placed on the left. In other words, each deviation, in comparison to the left deviation, makes the sense less distant from the referent. For example, lexical deviation is more involved in making the speech imaginary than historical deviation and less involved than semantic deviation. Nevertheless, Safavi acknowledges that this sketch is still too theoretical and a comprehensive research is needed to substantiate it.

As regards this study, and to answer the first research question, investigation showed that semantic, historical and lexical deviations are dominant in this poem of Shamlu. In the original poem, there were 9 instances of semantic deviation, 3 examples of lexical deviation and 12 cases of historical deviation.

There was also found one case of grammatical deviation. As for the other types of linguistic deviation, no instance was found; that is to say, this poem does not include any case of phonological, dialectal and register deviation. Concerning graphological deviation, again, this poem does not have any special instance like what we saw in the example of 'shekastan' cited before in the discussion of types of deviations. However, the verse lineation and punctuation of the poem may cause deliberate pauses or stresses on some words or lines that this may help reading the poem in the way Shamlu has intended.

The scarce instances of phonological, grammatical and dialectal deviations in this poem support Safavi's opinions about deviations. In his account, grammatical, dialectal and phonological deviations do not essentially create poetry as they are mainly used to preserve meter or to show the belonging of a poem to a special geographical place. Moreover, they are of too low a frequency to be considered as a means of poetic creation. Concerning graphological deviation and deviation of register, though the special kind of verse lineation in Shamlu's poetry helps reading his poem in a more special way and mingling poetic register with colloquial one is seen in some of his poems, they are not of too high a frequency to be considered dominant factors of his poetry.

Since style is a very important issue in poetry, it is necessary for the translator of poetry to pay a close attention to the stylistic features. The translator's awareness of the source language stylistic features and techniques affects the quality of the final translation considerably.

As presented above, in Shamlu's poetry semantic, historical and lexical deviations were dominant and determining factors of his poetic style. However, as to the second research question that was earlier posed, in the translation it was only semantic deviation which had a high degree of transference; and historical and lexical deviations were mainly ignored.

In poetry, both form and content are important. To look at deviations from a different angle, one can say that semantic deviation is related to the content of poetry and the other kinds of deviations are more or less connected to the formal aspects of it. As the translator was successful in transferring the majority of the instances of semantic deviations, one can say that the content of the original poem has mainly been conveyed. This is the admirable point about the translation, because as argued before, semantic deviation is the most important type of deviation. However, since in this translation the other types of deviations, especially historical and lexical ones as dominant factors of Shamlu's poetry were not mainly transferred, one can say that the formal features of the original poem have not been conveyed to an acceptable degree. The translator's failure in transferring lexical and historical deviations is the weak point of the translation.

The importance of Shamlu's poetry is not only in the images and concepts he presents, but also in the language he uses- contrary to the poetry of, for example, Forugh Farrokhzad or Sohrab Sepehri which is not so language-dependent. In Shamlu's poetry there are a lot of instances of lexical deviations, the words and combinations he has created for the first time. Again, in his poetry, archaism is the characteristic feature. According to Shafii Kadkani (1989), "in Shamlu's successful works the consideration of archaism is one of the most important elements of linguistic distinctness that can to some extent compensate for the lack of rhythm in his poetry" (p. 25, my translation). It gives his poetry a sort of epic

coloring and also a flavor of the past. However, as the findings of the study showed there are a lot of losses in the translation concerning the stylistic features of his poetry.

Based on what was said, the reasonable conclusion to arrive at may be that a literal method of translation is generally useful in the case of linguistic deviations because exclusion or omission of these poetic devices may have drastic effects on the style of the text. For example, in the case of historical and lexical deviations, the translator should try his/her best to create new words and compounds (just like that of original poems), and also make use of archaic words and combinations accessible in English. However, the translator should be careful so that creating new combinations and using archaism may not mar the unity or naturalness of the translation.

Finally, it could be concluded that Shamlu's poetry is, in all, more difficult to translate than the poetry of, say, Sohrab Sepehri because, as mentioned before, it is very language-dependent. The comparatively few translations of Shamlu's poetry probably has something to do with this.

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Hossein Pirnajmuddin, born in 1972 in Isfahan. BA in English from Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman 1994. MA in English literature from University of Tehran 1996. PhD in English literature from University of Birmingham 2002. Teaching at Kashan University 2002-2004. Assistant professor in English literature since 2004 at University of Isfahan. Field of interest: modern literary theory, colonial and postcolonial studies, Renaissance studies and translation studies.

Vahid Medhat, born in Estahban, Iran. BA in English translation from Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman 2007. MA student of English translation at University of Isfahan, Iran. Vahid's interest in the English language stems from the time when beginning formal study of the English language as a student in Shahid Bahonar University. As a part of the undergraduate degree, Vahid focused on literary translation criticism of Persian poetry and went on to make modern Persian poetry the focus of master's degree.

English–Arabic Contrastive Analysis Redefinition of Goals

May F. Al-Shaikhli
Department of Translation, Isra University, Amman, Jordan
Email: may7070may@yahoo.com

Ibrahim Abdel-Latif Shalabi
Department of English, Isra University, Amman, Jordan
Email: shalabi61@yahoo.com

Abstract—The purpose of this paper is to assess the current status of English-Arabic Contrastive Analysis (CA) in Iraqi universities & to suggest some redefinitions of the goals of this analysis accordingly. A sample of 25 theses that have been randomly chosen has been investigated and chronologically appended. The historical background will have a bird's eye view on the various phases CA in general has undergone so far. One of the limitations is consulting English references only, admitting that Arab scholars did have their own contribution as well.

Index Terms—comparative philology, pedagogic, structuralism, universal CA, bilingual, multilingual, linguistics, syntax, phonology, morphology, semantics

I. Historical Background

With respect to purpose, CA in general is undergoing now its third phase.

As the situation in the mother field, linguistics itself, is, the major trends in CA swing in their conflicts and developments from focus on similarities to focus on differences between languages. So, to differentiate between these three phases is to identify the aims and techniques of each period.

A. Comparative Philology

This is the first phase of linguistics itself. It started in 1786, when the Englishman William Jones discovered the great structural similarities between Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and Germanic & Celtic:

"The *Sanskrit* language . . . is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the *Greek*, more copious than the *Latin*, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs & in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have bean produced by accident . . . no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists: there is a similar reason . . . for supposing that both the *Gothic* & the *Celtic* . . . have the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the old *Persian* might be added the same family". (Simpson, 1979, p. 20).

An example of this correspondence is the following table:

English	Latin	Greek	Sanskrit
Mother	Matrem	Mä èra	Mat áram
Two	Duo	D úo	Dva ù
Mouse	Mus	M ûs	Mŭs
Three	tres	Tr ẽs	Tr áyas

(Ibid)

It is worth noticing that Jones did not expand his list to include such languages as Arabic & Chinese although he was familiar with both.

However, Jones's discovery of this similarity fired the imagination of all European scholars who followed his example, and with this started a new era in the study of language-*linguistics* in its first form: comparative philology, which practically lasted till the appearance of Saussure's book in 1916 & which brought about genuine discoveries in the field of language genealogy.

To related languages to each other and to discover their language families, scholars of that period developed a great number of principles and rules to guide them. Rask, for example, stressed in 1814 dependence on inflectional endings and sound correspondences rather than vocabulary similarities, which might be due to mere borrowing. Grimm as well established in 1822 his *sound-shift law* in which he showed how certain consonants have shifted from their original values in Germanic languages but not in Latin. (Ibid, p. 21).

In comparing languages, they extended their painstaking efforts to some dead languages, which they tried to reconstruct on the bases of certain principles and procedures.

The majority principle, for instance, may be stated as follows:

"If, in a cognate set, three forms begin with a [p] sound and one form begins with a [b] sound, then our best guess is that the majority have retained the original sound (i, e.[p]), and the minority has changed a little through time". (Yule, 1988, p. 170).

Later on, the Danish scholar Karl Verner publicized his law in 1875 in which he tried to modify what Grimm had said about sound-change:

"Verner assumed that Sanskrit had preserved the place of the earlier Indo-European word-accent and that the Germanic 'sound-shift' had taken place before the accent was shifted to word-initial position in some prehistoric period of Germanic". (Lyons, 1968, p. 29).

Verner's Law in fact paved the way for the appearance of a small group of scholars nicknamed 'Young Grammarians' in the last quarter of the 19th century. They held that language change is both regular and haphazard. It is haphazard in the sense that it is not possible to predict its occurrence nor to envisage its direction. It is regular as it is normally comprehensive and easily stateable:

". . . if, in any word of a given dialect, one sound changes into another, the change will also affect all other occurrences of the same sound in similar phonetic surroundings". (Aitchison, 1987, p. 30).

It is during this period that special attention was paid to language typology[•] through classifying languages either morphologically or syntactically.

From the morphological point of view, languages were classified into isolating (Chinese), agglutinating (Turkish) and fissional (Latin) ones:

"The number of morphemes per word varies from language to language – so does the way in which morphemes are combined within a word". (Ibid, p. 149).

Needless to say, a language is isolating if its words usually consist of one morpheme only, agglutinating if its words divide into morphemes easily and fissional if its morphemes are not easily divisible.

Syntactically, languages are classified into six groups:

SVO	English
SOV	Japanese
VSO	Arabic[••]
VOS	Malagasy
OSV	Apurina
OVS	Hixkaryana

Although some people are still interested in tracing language origins in one way or another, comparative philology as a trend received a deadly blow through the appearance of Saussure's book, in 1916, which criticized this trend for restricting itself to diachronic studies only.

What is odd about this phase is that it is for some linguistics a pre-linguistic ear. Simpson, for example, links the actual evolvement of linguistics to Saussure's book. (Simpson, 1979, p. 35).

Lyons and Aitchison, on the other hand, attest the majority's view that 1786 IS the birth date of linguistics (Lyons, 1968, p. 33). (Aitchison, 1987, p. 30).

However, what is important for the present paper is that comparative philology preceded contrastive linguistics but it is NOT part of it.

B. Pedagogic CA

The retreat of comparative philology in front of Saussure's structuralism brought about a period of about thirty years during which linguistic comparison was virtually absent. Europe then was too fascinated by Saussure's dichotomies and focus on linguistic interrelations to compare languages. America was too busy as well with following up the American Indian languages that were dying away quite rapidly to compare. Moreover, the appearance of Boomfieldian linguistics in the thirties, also called structuralism but for another reason was not in favor of language comparison, as Bloomfield exaggerated language differences and denied the possibility of setting up any classification system that would apply to all languages.

Strangely enough, two prominent students of Bloomfield's, Charles Fries and Robert Lado developed in the forties the technique of CA in their painstaking search for better materials and methods of foreign language teaching:

"The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". (Fries, 1945, p. 9).

[•] Though both CA and typology are synchronic in their approaches, they differ in that typology restricts itself to a certain feature shared by a number of languages. Whereas CA focuses on different feater in two or more languages.

[••] Arabic is sometimes an SVO language as well.

To improve these materials and methods, Fries and Lado, and many others, resorted both to linguistics and to the psychology for consultation.

Linguistics supplied them with Bloomfieldian Structuralism which has been characterized by formal descriptiveness and detailed categorization:

"[Structuralism] emphasized the importance of detailed 'scientific description' of languages based on a description of the different categories that make up the patterns of a language. These categories were defined in formal terms and they were established inductively". (Ellis, 1985, p. 25).

Psychology, on the other hand, supplied CA with behaviorism, the true ally of structuralism. Behaviousism[•] interpreted the activity of second language learning as a process of acquiring new habits. A habit for him is constituted by linking a certain response with a certain stimulus. Later on, Skinner (1957), however, minimized the role of the stimulus & held that it was the behavior that followed a response, which reinforced it. (Ibid, p. 21).

In its rejection of any mental aspect of language learning, behaviorism introduced the notion of interference, which causes errors when it is negative and results in facilitation when positive.

Pedagogic CA may then be defined as the comparison of two or more languages for the purpose of locating areas of (dis) similarities. It is built on the principle that similar items are easier in foreign language learning than dissimilar ones.

The problem with the CA hypothesis is that it has two extremities: a strong form and a weak one.

An illustration of its strong form is Lee's note:

"The prime cause, or even the sole cause, of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner's native language". (Lee quoted by Ellis, 1985, p. 23).

The weak form simply states that CA can simply specify which errors are attributable to interference. An extreme example of this form is Dulay & Burt's claim that "only 3 per cent of all learner's errors were the result of interference". (Ibid ,p. 28). Other researchers raised the percentage considerably. Mukattash, for example, assigned 23% of the errors of his English-learning Arab students to interference. (Ibid,p. 29).

The place of CA was drastically shaken when Chomsky severely attacked Skinner's behaviouristic interpretation of language acquisition as he nullified such notions as stimulus, response, analogy, imitation and reinforcement, rejecting them as irrelevant to the activity of language acquisition.

A further attack on pedagogic CA was that it may predict errors that may not really occur and it may skip errors, which may take place. By employing what Schachter called in 1974 'avoidance strategy' a learner may avoid producing a difficult item "by resorting to paraphrase, or to some near-equivalent". (James, 1980, p. 22). In a well-known experiment Schachter found out that in learning English relative clauses, the Chinese learners, whose language does not contain English-like relative clauses, make fewer errors than Arab learners, whose language resembles English in relative clause structures. Investigating the actual responses, she observed that her Chinese learners did not use this structure as much as the Arab ones did. They simply avoided suing it. (Ellis, 1985 ,p. 33).

Other negative remarks were the actual lack of theoretical bases of comparison and the absence of all pragmatic aspects in that comparison.

For all these reasons and others, the great expectations, which many scholars hanged on pedagogic CA, were gradually dashed, and, without disappearing completely, it retreated considerably in its popularity and gave way to the third phase to appear and to accompany it in the last quarter of the twentieth century. As for educators, syllabus designers and practical teachers, they, instead, renewed their interest in the classic technique of error analysis and in its more valid and more realistic promises.

C. Universal CA

This term has been coined in this essay to refer to the third phase of CA, in which CA devoted itself to enriching and verifying the major principles and parameters of universal grammar. A major task of grammarians today is to split the details of the grammar into core grammar, i.e., what belongs to universal grammar, and peripheral grammar, i.e., what belongs to that specific grammar:

"We want to know which properties of English are language specific . . . and which are universal". (Haegeman and Gueron, 1999 ,p. 582).

In order to split these two types of property, one may make grammar as explicit as possible, which will enable one to see which, phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic features are common and which are not.

Among the major hypotheses that transformational grammar has introduced in this respect is that mere exposure to a language is not enough for acquiring it. This triggering experience does not enable the learner of English, for example, to figure out when the declarative complementizer 'that' is optionally or obligatorily overt, as in these two sentences:

He said <u>that</u> he was ready

<u>That</u> he arrived alone surprised everybody

The problem with this exposure is that it does not provide the learner with the negative experience required for such judgments.

[•] This school which was expounded by John Watson (1878-1958) flourished in the second quarter of the twentieth century. It stresses the role of environment in learning and excludes from its domain all sorts of behavior that may not be objectively observed.

Something greater that this exposure, therefore, lies behind the linguistic knowledge . . . It is universal grammar, that innate cognitive capacity, which enables the learner to know his language infinitely through that finite exposure, that is, to judge correctly whether a certain sentence is grammatical or not even without necessarily being previously exposed to it. This universal grammar expounds itself through certain principles and parameters.

Principles are those predetermined rules. To quote Haegeman and Gue'ron again:

"they are given at birth; they are part of the cognitive capacity enabling us to acquire language and they themselves do not have to be acquired". (Ibid ,p. 284).

A basic principle, for example, is that the selectional properties of the verb determine the composition of a sentence.

A second principle is the Empty Category Principle, which requires the identification of empty categories.

A third example is the principle of Full Interpretation, which requires that each symbol in the syntactic representation of a sentence by integrated into its total interpretation. Accordingly, the omission of the complementizer 'that' in the above mentioned sentence:

He arrived alone surprised everybody is not possible, as this empty category remains unidentifiable, which renders it uninterruptible.

The important thing about these principles is that they are never in their final shapes:

"These hypothetical principles of UG are open to further testing against data from other languages which may either confirm their universal character, possibly in a modified form, or reveal their language – specific character. They may also force their rejection altogether". (Ouhalla, 1979, p. 297).

Parameters, on the other hand, are limited choices, which vary cross linguistically.

"A parameter is understood to be a restricted set of options / values associated with a given principle or category. Choice of one option / value yields a given pattern, and choice of a different option / value yields a different pattern". (Ibid,p.298).

One example is the object shift parameter, which assumes that SVO and SOV languages have basically the same word order: both are SVO order. Some of them, like English, have stuck to it; others, like German, have chosen to move the object leftward across the verb.

A second example of parameterization is the strength or weakness of verbal inflection. Weak agreement, as in English, does not enable the verb to move leftward to agreement. Thus, it is possible to say:

John always eats chocolate

But it is ungrammatical to say:

John eats always chocolate

In French, however, where agreement is strong, it is said the other way around:

Jean mange toujours du chocolate (Haegeman and Gue'ron, 1999, p. 587).

These are just sporadic examples of what is going on nowadays in generative linguistics. To verify these principles and parameters, they ought to be checked along as many examples as possible. To achieve this verification, CA has stepped forward in its new robe. Since the seventies, it has assumed a more theoretical responsibility without completely deserting its pedagogic task. Languages began to be compare just to see to what extent the current principles and parameters are comprehensive in their application. As a matter of fact, the mere subjecting of some well-known languages to this verification has indirectly shed light on their secrets and solved lots of their learning difficulties and ambiguities. It has consequently modernized the methods of teaching them:

"Language comparison is of great interest in a theoretical as well as an applied perspective. It reveals what is general and what is language specific and is therefore important both for the understanding of language in general and for the study of the individual languages compared". (Johansson and Hofland, quoted in Johansson's paper, 1999)

With this statement the historical background reaches its end.

II. BILINGUAL OR MULTILINGUAL COMPARISON?

Whether the aim is pedagogical or the search for language universals, it has been taken customary that the technique of CA simply means comparing TWO languages. Thus researchers compare the foreign language with the native language just to delineate points of ease and difficulty in foreign language learning. In translational CA, the source language is compared with the target language.

In a daring paper whose draft (1999) has been accessed to for the present essay through the Internet, S. Johansson, A Norwegian scholar, urges for a multilingual corpus for CA:

"If we want to gain insight into language and translation generally, and at the same time highlight the characteristics of each language, it is desirable to extend the comparison beyond language pairs".

Johansson tells that the original project that developed a bilingual corpus for CA and translation studies (the English – Norwegian Parallel Corpus) has been extended to the include translations of the English original into six languages:

		Norwegian		
Swedish				German
Dutch		English		Portuguese
		Finnish		

In justifying this extension, Johansson lists these four advantages of a multilingual CA:

1-   Comparison of original texts and translations across languages.
2-   Comparison of original texts across languages.
3-   Comparison of translations across languages.
4-   Comparison of original texts and translations within the same language.

R. Salkie, however, goes further in stipulating corpora for CA, taking them as one of the reasons for its revival:

"Parallel corpora [i.e. multilingual corpora] are a valuable source of data; indeed, they have been a principal reason for the revival of contrastive linguistics that has taken place in the 1990s". (Salkie, 1999, quoted by Johansson)

As a matter of fact, the use of multilingual corpora adds more validity and accuracy to the comparison, it can also be a good place for making and testing cross-linguistic hypotheses.

It is especially important in macrolinguistic comparison.

III. CRITERIA FOR COMPARISON

All types of comparison require a certain degree of sameness. This level of sameness acquires more importance if we contrast things with each other rather than compare then to each other. In CA, this sameness is usually called the constant variable or the tertium comparationis (TC). For one reason or another, it is easier to agree on a TC for phonology or vocabulary than to find one for grammar:

"For phonology the IPA chart and vowel diagram seemed strong candidates, while for lexis the (probably universal) set of semantic components seemed useful. But we have so far failed to identify any such obvious TC for grammatical CA. Over the years three candidates have been proposed: surface structure, deep structure, and translation equivalence". (James, 1980,p. 169). (Let us use from now on the new terms: S-structure for surface structure and D-structure for deep structure)

A. S-Structure

The S-structure can be chosen as a TC only if there is a grammatical category that is overtly common in both languages. Being based on the structural lines that exclude meaning from the scope of their study, it recognizes two dimensions only: form and distribution.

The main advantage of choosing it as TC is that it is the structure which foreign language learners are confronted with.

The disadvantage is that it does not tell us about the structural formation of a sentence. It is sometimes misleading as it superficially deals with sentential and differences. In comparing the English and Arabic sentences:

This is a book

/hatha kitaabun/

one should not say that indefiniteness is marked in English but not in Arabic simply because Arabic lacks an article like 'a' before the indefinite noun. Al-tanween at the end of that noun is the substitute.

B. D-Structure

The chief advantage of choosing the D-structure is that it is for many people language independent. Hence, it can be used as a common denominator for two superficially different sentences in two different languages.

Ahmed is easy to please

/minel sahli 'irdha:' 'hmed/ من السهل إرضاء أحمد

So, if we agree with the people who believe in the universality of the D-structure, then we may assume that these two sentences come from one D-structure, which is mapped unto two S-structures via transformations. The two justifications for this assumption are that the two sentences have the same meaning and that transformational rules are meaning-preserving (Let us put aside for the moment the modern claim that meaning is determined in the S-structure).

Another advantage for choosing the D-structure as TC is that second language learners do intentionally or unintentionally return to D-structure by disregarding in one way or another what is transformationally added such as the auxiliary 'do' or moved such as tense realization.

A third advantage of resorting to D-structure is that one can see whether the two sentences in the compared languages do differ in their transformational steps or not and at which stage they diverge if they do.

One may cite here James's examples with a slight change in the layout:

	English	German
D-structure	I have apple. The apple is red	Ich habe einen Apfel. Der Apfel ist rot
T-relative	I have an apple which is red	Ich habe einer Apfel, der rot ist
T-deletion	I have an apple . . . red	Ich habe einen Apfel . . . rot
T-shifting	I have a red apple (S-structure)	Ich habe einen rot Apfel (S-structure)

(James, p. 42).

The disadvantage of choosing the D-structure in its Chomskyan concept in the standard theory (1965) is that it may ignore the communicative dimension of the sentence. The *partial* remedy is to add the pragmatic flavor, which Hymes, among others, added in his communicative competence.

C. Translation Equivalence

The first problem, which meets one in selecting translation equivalence as TC is: what is translation equivalence ? Sameness of meaning is of course not enough. James suggests that it may be defined in terms of D-structures on the ground that the D-structure "incorporates" and James here quotes Chomsky (1965), "all information relevant to the single interpretation of a particular sentence". (James, 1980, p. 178).

James then quotes and supports Krzeszowski's claim that 'equivalent constructions have identical deep structures." (Ibid)

The problem here is that all these three references: Chomsky's *Aspects* (1965), Krzeszowski's paper (1971) and James's book (1980) do not conform to the Modified Extended Standard Theory (1975) which assigned the responsibility of the sentential meaning determination to the S-structure.

A viable alternative is Lakoff's suggestion that we may go to selectional and co-occurrence restrictions: if two sentences in two languages are subject to the same restrictions and if they mean the same at the same time, they are translationally equivalent.

To add to the rejection of the D-structure identity in defining translation equivalence is the fact that D-structure is concerned with one type of meaning only: the ideational meaning or the experiential meaning as it has been recently called. It does not concern itself with what Halliday calls interpersonal and textual meaning. (Ibid, p. 178).

James defines them as follows:

"The interpersonal meaning of a sentence determines what kind of speech act it performs for its user: to praise, condemn, refuse, agree, and so on. The textual meaning of a sentence determines what information it contributes to the message: how it helps maintain cohesion and coherence". (Ibid)

The conclusion then is that translation equivalence is the most reliable TC, once we define it accurately.

IV. SAMPLE ANALYSIS

Without going into the details of the content, which is beyond the realm of this paper, a swift glance at the 25 theses enables one to make the following remarks:

A. Subject Matter:

72% syntax
16% phonology
8% morphology
4% semantics

Thus the focus has been exclusively on syntax. Moreover, one may notice here that ALL these 25 theses have adopted the same aim-the pedagogical aim of CA: they have been written simply to predict the mistakes made by Arab learners of English by locating areas of differences between the two languages. The authenticity of this premise has been taken for granted and none of them expressed the doubts exposed above concerning this pedagogical assumption. The mere fact that none of these theses thought of choosing the other aim, which is gaining more and more importance nowadays, simply implies that our Iraqi universities hardly allot any space in their curricula for the search of linguistic universals, nor for directing CA for checking these universals arrived at these days. It is a pity that this new perspective has not evolved in our Iraqi universities yet.

Besides, this focus on syntax justifies urging new researchers to pay more attention to other areas like contrastive macrolinguistics and contrastive lexicography.

In macrolinguistics, a suitable example is to see how text analysis may be carried out in Arabic and English. One can see what lexical and grammatical devices may be valid in this analysis in both languages.

One can also check to what extent it is possible to apply to this analysis the Functional Sentence Perspective approach which was developed some fifty years ago by well-known Czech linguists like Mathesius and Fibras and which divides sentence information into 'given' and 'new' items or into 'theme' and 'rheme' in terms of this approach.

We may also realize how discourse analysis can be carried out in Arabic and English by comparing the various sentential functions in both languages: statements, commands, and questions, . . . by checking what discourse markers and rhetorical devices abound in each language.

Conversation can be another suitable area as well: what are the major components of conversation in Arabic and English ? What are the familiar topics for phatic communion in them?

The familiar scale of units of discourse in English is as follows:

Turn - - - - - - Move - - - - - - exchange - - - - - - conversation

One may apply this scale to Arabic and see how it works.

The other absent area is lexicography. It is possible here to see how Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis of linguistic determinism may work on Arabic and English, and what word fields and semantic components are similar in the two languages.

B. Models of Comparison

With respect to syntax, the two major models of comparison are structural grammar and transformational grammar. The majority of these theses adopted the structural model. The suggestion here is that more attention may be paid to the second model as it has its own advantages over the first one. Transformational grammar supplies the contranstivist through its Universal Base Hypothesis with a universal base common to all languages and with the formal universals through language differences are ideally explained:

"Certain differences between English and German can only be observed if a transformational grammar is adopted as theoretical framework for one's statements" (Koning, quoted by James, 1980,p. 42).

Another advantage is that this model provides the constructivist with a scale of measuring differences:

". . . The T-GG approach provides the contrastive analyst with some kind of measure of degree of difference between compared constructions in L1 and L2". (Ibid ,p. 45).

C. Number of Languages

It is quite normal to expect all the theses of the present sample to execute a two-language analysis. The recommendation is that some attempts from now on may follow the Norwegian example by comparing three or more languages or translation texts at the same time.

D. TC

None of the 25 theses tried to establish a TC for the comparison. It seems that a researchers in such a case takes the presence of a TC in the comparison for granted. Subject – Verb Inversion: what is a subject in English? What is a subject in Arabic? Does it have the same distribution in both languages? In statements in Arabic a subject may appear before the verb or after it. In English it is a different case. So, where is the constant variable? It should be established right before running the comparison.

As stated above, translation equivalence is perhaps the best TC for syntactic comparison.

E. Form of Arabic Language

Unlike the English language that appears in this sample in two forms only (*English* in six theses) and (Standard *English* in 19 theses), Arabic appears in 5 shapes:
- Arabic in 6 theses.
- Standard Arabic in 11 theses.
- Modern Standard Arabic in 4 theses.
- Baghdadi Arabic in 3 theses.
- Iraqi Arabic in 1 thesis.

Since the other language is Standard English, the normal course of things is to compare it with Standard Arabic.

What draws one's attention is that 4 researchers compared Standard English with *modern* Standard Arabic, without realizing that they are virtually excluding in this way *Kuranic* Arabic and the great treasures of Arabic heritage.

The fact is that Modern Standard Arabic is a mere illusion which does not stand any reality and that Standard Arabic is one and the same during the days of Prophet Mohammed and nowadays.

The other remark goes to Baghdadi or Iraqi Arabic. These two forms of Arabic may be compared with dialectal English only, as the choice of the linguistic form will affect the formality level of the subject matter and the degree of commitment to grammatical and stylistic requirements.

F. Updating the Field

Arabic – English constructivists ought to take into consideration the new modes of comparison in the last decade or so.

They may focus on applying some principles and parameters to Arabic to see to what extent they fit and to what extent they do not.

This focus entails selecting suitable topics and techniques that cope with what is going on nowadays. Here are few examples:

  a.   Theta-role assigner in English and Arabic.
  b.   Non-overt subject in English and Arabic.
  c.   The Incorporation of the Empty Category Principle in English and Arabic.
  d.   The universal locality condition on movement in English and Arabic.
  e.   Strong and weak agreement in English and Arabic.

To sum up, the present paper has surveyed the current situation of Arabic-English contrastive analysis on a general historical background.

It is hoped that it has critically viewed the details of this field and that it has authentically attempted to participate in updating it.

THE THESES SAMPLE

No.	Researcher	Title	University	Year
1-	A.K.R.	A Contrastive Study of Standard English & Baghdadi Arabic Assimilation Pattterns of Consonants	Baghdad	1976
2-	A.S.T.	A Contrastive Study of English & Baghdadi Arabic Passivization	Baghdad	1976
3-	S.A.R.K.	A Contrastive Study of Standard English and Baghdadi Arabic Word Stress Patterns	Baghdad	1977
4-	A.M.H.J.	A Contrastive Analysis of the Article System in Standard English & Modern Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1978
5-	M.M.S.A.	WH Question Structures in Standard English & Their Counterparts in Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1979
6-	T.A.R.I.	A Contrastive Study of Relativization in Contemporary English & Modern Standard Arabic	Mosul	1981
7-	H.M.F.	Futurity in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1983
8-	Z.A.A.	Comparison in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1983
No.	Researcher	Title	University	Year
9-	A.K.J.	Time Adverbials in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1984
10-	A.M.H.	Realization of Request in English & Arabic	Basrah	1984
11-	J.H.M.	A Contrastive Study of the Semantically-Based Linguistic Reference in English & Arabic	Mosul	1984
12-	S.A.H.	A Contrastive Study of Manner Adverbials in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1984
13-	S.Z.Y.	Description & Contrastive Analysis of Ellipsis in Standard English & Arabic	Basrah	1984
14-	W.Y.M.	A Contrastive Study of Subordination in Standard English & Modern Standard Arabic	Mosul	1984
15-	E.S.D.	Locatives in Both English & Arabic	Baghdad	1986
16-	K.N.O.	A Contrastive Study of Topicalization in English & Arabic	Baghdad	1986
17-	M.M.S.	A Study of Stress Patterns in English & Modern Standard Arabic	Mosul	1986

No.	Researcher	Title	University	Year
18-	N.S.M.	A Contrastive Study of Indirect Object Movement in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1986
19-	I.H.M.	A Grammatical Study of Vocatives in English & Arabic	Mosul	1987
20-	S.S.A.B.	A Contrastive Study of Standard English & Standard Arabic Syllable Structure	Baghdad	1987
21-	R.M.H.M.	Noun Phrase Structure & Functions in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Al-Mustansiriya	1988
22-	M.A.A.S.	A Contrastive Study of Consonant Clusters in Standard English & Iraqi Arabic	Basrah	1989
23-	Y.M.H.	Subjective-Verb Inversion: A Contrastive Study of One Aspect of Word Order in Standard English & Standard Arabic	Baghdad	1989
24-	K.M.A.A.	Prepositions & Prepositional Collocations: An English – Arabic Contrastive Study	Al-Mustansiriya	1995
25-	S.F.T.	Lexical Similarity between Standard Arabic & Standard English	Al-Mustansiriya	1996

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SAMPLE ACCORDING TO SUBJECT MATTER

Syntax	Phonology	Morphology	Semantics	Total
2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18 19, 21, 23, 24	1, 3, 17, 22	20, 25	11	
18	4	2	1	= (25)

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SAMPLE ACCORDING THE FORM OF THE LANGUAGE

Standard English vs. Standard Arabic	Standard English vs. Modern Standard Arabic	English vs. Arabic	Standard English vs. Baghdadi Arabic	Standard English vs. Iraqi Arabic	Total
5, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 18, 20, 21, 23, 25	4, 6, 14, 17	10, 11, 15, 16, 19, 24	1, 2, 3	22	
11	4	6	3	1	= (25)

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May F. Al-Shaikhli was born in Baghdad, Iraq 1970. She got her Ph. D degree in Linguistics and Translation from Mousel University and her MA, and BA degrees in Translation from AL Mostanseriya University in Baghdad Iraq. Her major field is pure Translation with all its branches such as Literary, Scientific, Legal, and Mass Media, consecutive and simultaneous ones.

She is currently occupying an Assistant Professor position in Translation in the College of Arts and Humanities at AL-Isra University in Amman-Jordan. From 2005-2007 she worked, also, as an Assistant Professor in Translation in the College of Arts and Humanities at Middle East University (MEU) for Graduate Studies Amman–Jordan. She worked an Instructor at AL-Turath college and AL-Mustanseriya University and a Translator in the Ministry of Education in Baghdad-Iraq.

Ibrahim Abdel-Latif Shalabi was born in Jordan, 1961. He got his Ph.D. in American Literature from the Vidyapeeth University, Udaipur, Rajasthan, India, 1994. His Bachelor of Arts in English Literature is from the University of Rajasthan, India, 1986, while his Master of Arts in English Literature is from Mohan Lal Sukhadia University, Udaipur (INDIA) 1989.

He is currently the Chairman of the Department of English at Isra University, Amman, Jordan. He was also the Chairman of the Department of English at the same University from 2006-2009. Moreover, he worked as an Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Isra University, Amman, Jordan from 2003 to Present. He is a member at the Board of the Faculty of Arts and was an External Examiner in a committee for the public defense of an MA thesis. Some of his Publications are: COLERIDGE,S CRITICISM and MAJOR THEMES IN RENAISSANCE UTOPIAS.

Teaching and Testing ESP at Iranian Universities: A Critical View

Goodarz Alibakhshi
Language teaching department, Yasouj University, Iran
Email: alibakhshi_goodarz2000@yahoo.com

Hassan Ghand Ali
Payame Noor University, Iran

Davoud Padiz
Yasouj University, Iran

Abstract—Comparing general English teaching with ESP teaching, we certainly notice both similarities and differences. The difference is that many general English language teachers are trained to become teachers of English while the great majority of ESP teachers are not trained as such. ESP teachers need, therefore, to orientate themselves to a new environment for which they have not generally been prepared. Regardless of the existence of this significant difference, as Jordan (1997) believes, ESP teachers obviously have much in common with any language teacher. The ESP teacher needs to take account of developments in linguistics and learning theory, aims to keep up with current views on the place of learners in the education system, and has to confront the new technologies offered as aids to improve pedagogy. What distinguishes, the ESP teachers from many teachers in the world of ELT, however, is the additional and crucial need to understand, the requirements of other professionals, either academic or occupational, the differences in learning conditions in terms of both learners' needs, age, etc. This study is an attempt to critically view of ESP teachers' roles in Iran to see whether they follow the right procedures in ESP classrooms or not. To carry out the study, some ESP classrooms in some universities were observed and the teachers' main activities were compared with those activities in the provided checklist. The results indicate that ESP teachers in our country are not teaching English and their activities do not reflect innovations in teaching and learning.

Index Terms—ESP, teaching, testing, improvement

I. INTRODUCTION

So far we have concerned ourselves with different stages of ESP program planning, from the initial data collection, through the design of materials, to the structuring of classroom and learning environment. If we follow the commonly practiced model of ESP program planning in which teaching and testing are viewed as the final stages, now we come to the final sections to consider the role of the ESP teacher, in particular, to consider in what ways the ESP teacher's lot differ from that of the general English teacher. Then, we make an attempt to discuss the past and the present status of testing in ESP program planning. Finally, we suggest some guidelines to improve ESP program in terms of both teaching and testing. The discussion of the two separate but interdependent stages of any ESP program is given in two different sections.

II. THE ROLE OF ESP TEACHER

Comparing general English teaching with ESP teaching, we certainly notice both similarities and differences. The difference is that many general English language teachers are trained to become teachers of English while the great majority of ESP teachers are not trained as such. ESP teachers need, therefore, to orientate themselves to a new environment for which they have not generally been prepared. Regardless of the existence of this significant difference, as Jordan (1997) believes, ESP teachers obviously have much in common with any language teacher. The ESP teacher needs to take account of developments in linguistics and learning theory, aims to keep up with current views on the place of learners in the education system, and has to confront the new technologies offered as aids to improve pedagogy. What distinguishes, the ESP teachers from many teachers in the world of ELT, however, is the additional and crucial need to understand, the requirements of other professionals, either academic or occupational, the differences in learning conditions in terms of both learners' needs, age, etc.

Jordan (1997) also believes that ESP teachers have different jobs. The jobs can be specified as catalyst, organizer, advisor, coordinator, and friend. He also believes that because teachers enter into a number of professional role-relationships, they are the focus of many different attitudes from different sources (e.g. learners, organizers, sponsors, etc).

Flowedew and Peacock (2001) argues that the role of teacher will vary according to the type of syllabus and course and which part of the world it takes place in. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) believe, teachers roles are related both to assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach. Some methods are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction; others see the teacher's role as catalyst, consultant, guide, and model of for learning; still others try to "teacher- proof" the instructional system by limiting teacher initiative and by building instructional content and direction into texts or lesson plans. Teachers and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristic of classrooms in which a particular method is being used.

In line with Richards and Rodgers, no one can claim that ESP teachers should perform the same activities in their different ESP classrooms. That is, naturally speaking, as ESP classes are different in terms of learners' different purposes and different fields of study, teachers, therefore, are required to have a variety of teaching activities in their classrooms according to their learners. A comprehensive discussion of teachers' role in the learner- centered approach and teacher-directed approach is contained in Richards and Rodgers (2001). In contrast to teacher's roles in General English teaching which has been explored to a great extent, only a few applied linguists have attempted to elaborate on the ESP teacher's roles which are quoted in the following parts of the study.

Robinson (1991) suggests that the key quality needed by the ESP teacher is flexibility: the flexibility to change from being a general language teacher to being a specific teacher, and the flexibility to adapt to different groups of students, often at very short notice.

Jarvis (1983) cited in Robinson (1991) encapsulated the overall abilities needed by an ESP teacher:
1. Analyze SP language and situations;
2. Evaluate textbooks and other sources;
3. Evaluate learners attainment;
4. Devise performance objectives for learners;
5. Design or interpret syllabuses;
6. Design or interpret schemes for work;
7. Devise teaching and learning strategies;
8. Devise individual but interrelated teaching sessions;
9. Produce materials;
10. Organize teaching/ learning sessions;
11. Assess achievements of objectives.

Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) cited in Robinson (1991) made a list of the likely requirements of an ESP teacher such as: developing a working knowledge of the students' subject; dealing with the pastoral problems of students a long way from homes and families; and preparing the students for specific entry requirements of English language exams.

Johns (1981) cited in Robinson (1991) mentioned ESP teachers problems. The problems, in rank order of importance, were:
1. Low priority in timetabling;
2. Lack of personal/ professional contact with subject teachers;
3. Lower status/grade than subject teachers;
4. Isolation from other teachers of English doing similar work;
5. Lack of respect from students.

III. SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE ESP TEACHING

Critically viewing the review of the related literature on ESP teaching in general and ESP teachers' roles in particular, we can find out that in contrast to the great development which has been made in ESP material development, teaching and teachers' roles in ESP program planning have not been paid adequate attention. In this part of the study, I try to provide some solutions to the prevalent problems in ESP so that we cam make a change in the current practiced ESP teaching methodology in our country. The main suggestions and solutions are listed as follow:

1. As Sifakis (2003) believes, majority of ESP learners are adults. Therefore, applying the adult education framework to ESP curriculum development seems to be very vital if we intend to take into consideration all influential variables especially learners' variables. By 'adult education' (AE) I mean the international interdisciplinary study of adults as learners and/or trainees of all types and in all environments (J. Rogers, 1989; A. Rogers, 1996). By 'English for specific purposes' (ESP), I refer to the wide area that concentrates on all aspects of the specific-purpose teaching of English and encompasses the academic (EAP) and vocational/ occupational (EOP) frameworks (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The same perspective is presumed here to apply to the teaching of any language for specific purposes (Widdowson, 1983).

While ESP and AE share, as we will see, similar theoretical constructs (e.g. a concern for learner autonomy and motivation, self-confidence, self-directed learning, etc.), ESP is predominantly considered to be an approach (in the sense that Richards and Rodgers, 1986, gave to the term) to the teaching of the English language (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), which makes it relevant to practically all age-groups (except, perhaps, younger learners) and, arguably, all target situations (as the necessities-needs-wants curricular orientation of Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, seems to imply). AE, on the other hand, concentrates on the teaching of subjects that involve either

manual skills (e.g. pottery) or knowledge-transfer (e.g. history) to a particular group of learners, namely, adults. In this article, I will not be challenging the 'ESP-as-an-approach' perspective—on the contrary, I will be focusing on elements from AE that can be fruitfully implemented in all forms of ESP course design.

In line with Sifikis (2003), I strongly believe that ESP teaching due to the specific characteristics of the adult learners is to a great extent different from teaching general English. I also believe that adult learners' greater sense of perspective and ability to make judgments (about themselves and others) based on accumulated experience, combined with their inherent autonomy and need for establishing clear goals, can be fruitfully implemented in ESP teaching/learning situations. This can be achieved by making the ESP learner an active participant, not only in the actual learning process, but also in the syllabus and lesson planning stage. Therefore, it can be argued that ESP teachers are both counselors and teachers.

On the one hand, the ESP teacher is responsible for promoting, whenever possible, methodology-specific communicative strategies that enhance the learners' adulthood- oriented considerations. This would involve the integration of self-directed learning techniques with task-based activities that enhance the learners' problem-solving skills and ability to reflect on previous experience.

On the other hand, ESP teachers act as advisors or counselors to their adult learners. Counseling is 'the process of helping an individual discover and develop his educational, vocational, and psychological potentialities and thereby to achieve an optimal level of personal happiness and social usefulness'. The counselor's function is finding ways to both appreciate and enhance learners' learning and studying needs as well as increasing the scope of adult learners' exploratory behavior by offering psychological assistance where necessary. Such counsel may have to do with a host of different situations, ranging from helping learners adjust to the new learning situation to boosting their self-confidence in micro-skill-oriented issues to helping them with unexpected personal crises (e.g. death in the family, divorce, accidents, etc). While counseling is especially applicable in small ESP classes, large classes can also benefit from it if the ESP teacher draws the learners' attention to it, highlights its importance at the beginning of classes and prompts them to consult him/her when need arises. However, as Lozanov 1979) and others have stressed, teacher counseling has a strictly speaking pedagogic function and should never be equated with (and therefore can never replace) professional therapy.

As Wheeler (2000) believes, the ESP teaching process can benefit from a teacher who treats learners as adults and has the following 'qualities of a competent therapist': 'a good person, intelligent, creative, sincere, energetic, and warm towards others, responsible and of sound judgment'. In the first stage of learning, teachers/counselors must establish themselves with the student as being attractive, trustworthy and expert, whereas 'personal attributes such as warmth and positive regard, cultivating hope, being non-judgemental and accepting' (Wheeler, 2000) are also considered important. The therapist's character and interpersonal style are also necessary aspects, as are acceptance, emotional stability, open-mindedness, commitment, genuineness, interest in people, confidence, sensitivity and fairness (Pope, 1996, cited in Wheeler, 2000). Finally, it is important for the learner to appreciate from the outset that the teacher is able to communicate and is non-competitive, uncomplicated, a good listener and openly reflective on his/her own practice (especially important in very specific ESP situations.

2. Sullivan and Girginer (2002) believe effective ESP programs require relevant materials, knowledgeable instructors, and teamwork with subject matter professionals. They provided an example of one process used by a teacher-researcher to increase and expand each of these aspects. That is, one of the authors was asked to teach English to future pilots and air traffic controllers in Turkey, and, though she had had experience teaching English, she had little knowledge of the actual English language needs of her students. As she looked over the books she was given, she felt strongly that these standard English language books were neither appropriate nor sufficient. Her search for other material that focused on specific language needs of air traffic personnel, especially in this Turkish setting, yielded little. After discussing this situation and ways to become more familiar with the needs of her students, she decided to document actual language used by pilots and air traffic controllers at work in order to increase her awareness and provide a basis for materials development. Her decision was based, in part, on Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) comments about the lack of specific content knowledge of many ESP teachers, and the need for them to orient themselves to a new environment.

Based on the result of their study it can be argued that ESP teachers who have little knowledge of the specific language needs of their students and are not familiar with the discourse of their students, are recommended to work with professionals and analyze their discourse. In line with their findings and Hutchinson and Waters (1987), I believe that if there is to be meaningful communication in the classroom, it is necessary that there be a common fund of knowledge and interest between teacher and learner. This implies inevitably that the ESP teacher must know something about the subject matter of the ESP materials. To put it in another way, understanding the discourse of the students' subject matters through negotiation between ESP teachers and learners can facilitate teaching process.

3. Since ESP programs vary worldwide, there is no single, ideal role description for an ESP practitioner. In addition to the routine tasks of a language teacher, the ESP practitioner may be required to deal with administrative, personnel, cross-cultural, interdisciplinary, curricular, and pedagogical issues that may be unfamiliar to ESOL teachers.

Several traits and skills have been identified as important for success in teaching ESP: flexibility, adaptability, creativity, resourcefulness, well developed organizational and managerial/leadership skills, effective interpersonal and

cross-cultural communication skills, and mature problem-solving and decision-making skills (Hutchinson & Waters 1990; Jackson 1994, 1995; Robinson 1991).

ESP teacher education programs that are problem-based and practitioner oriented can help student teachers develop the requisite skills and attributes by providing "a kind of classroom apprenticeship for professional decision making" and reflection. In line with Jackson (1998), it can be put forward that the case method is ideally suited for this purpose since cases can bring the world of the ESP practitioner into the classroom and help student teachers vicariously experience the problems and challenges involved in the sometimes messy world of ESP.

As Jackson (1988) cites, the careful selection of cases for an ESP teacher education program is crucial to the success of the learning experience and must take into consideration the goals of the program as well as the needs and interests of the students. The following are some general attributes of reality-based decision cases that work particularly well in programs that are planned to foster the skills that teachers need in ESP practice:

1. The connection between the key issues in the cases and the course syllabus is explicit;
2. The cases are compelling, well-written narratives or videotaped scenes;
3. The detailed narratives are "richly contextualized, multilayered account containing a variety of issues for analysis;
4. The cases do not have simple solutions;
5. They end in a cliffhanger with students keen to find out how the situation was resolved; and
6. There is an element of generalizability.

To sum it up, in line with Jackson I believe that teachers who enter the profession of ESP may find themselves teaching first-year engineering students in Qatar, post-registration nursing students in Indonesia, MBA students in Hong Kong or pre-law students in London, political science students in Iran, etc. The possibilities seem endless as ESP continues to expand around the globe to meet the demands for English as the medium of science, technology, trade, and tourism. How can we as teacher educators best prepare teachers for the challenges they could face in these diverse roles and avoid Hutchinson's and Waters' (Hutchinson & Waters 1990) admonition that "ESP teachers are all too often reluctant dwellers in a strange and uncharted land"?

I strongly support the use of reality-based decision cases in teacher education programs to better prepare teachers for ESP practice. The analysis of cases can help teachers make connections between knowledge and practice and can stimulate and foster the skills and confidence that they will need in order to feel at ease and competent in the professional community of ESP practitioners.

Moreover, cases are very flexible tools that are or can be made relevant and of interest to the specific needs of student teachers, whether in pre-service or in-service teacher education programs. In settings where useful, culturally appropriate teacher education materials may be difficult to obtain, cases can be a way of providing opportunities for reflection on relevant, meaningful teaching practice. In order for this pedagogy to become widely used and accepted, however, it is imperative that experienced ESP practitioners document their experiences through cases and make these "windows on practice" accessible to others. Let's take ESP practice out of the closet.

4. In reflective pedagogy, teachers are not considered as only consumers of predetermined materials. Teachers as the real managers of the classrooms and as those who are touching a lot of relevant issues in the classroom should be given a chance to contribute to the ESP program from the first to the last stage. To train such ESP teachers, I think we need to design a separate field of study or at least an interdisciplinary field which aims at educating and training ESP teachers. In ESP teacher education programs, teachers should acquire the basic principles of material developments and materials adaptation so that that they can be effective in learning situations which are predictable by course designers. They should also be taught how to make use of technology in their ESP classes.

IV. TESTING IN ESP PROGRAM

Generally speaking, evaluation is an important stage of any education system. Reviewing the literature on testing, we can infer that testing in education in general and language teaching in particular has gone through different developmental stages. A very important and useful issue for all language teachers to bear in their minds is that each approach to language teaching has one specific testing and evaluation system. To simply put it, each method of language teaching is evaluated via one particular testing approach (e.g. audio-lingual method and discrete point tests have the same theoretical assumptions). The emergence of each approach to teaching paved the way for one corresponding testing approach.

Chronologically speaking, different eras in language testing can be mentioned. To put it in another way testing history can be divided into there different eras: pre -scientific, psychometric-structural, and communicative.

Critically speaking, a significant development has been made in the ESP materials. As we know, we should evaluate our students based on what they are instructed. Therefore, a significant development in ESP testing seems to be not only necessary but only the only solution to the prevailing problems in ESP/EAP areas. While, although different approaches to materials development in ESP have been practiced in the world of ESP, no real innovation in testing methods has been made. That is, we expected to evaluate our students based on the real materials which they are learning; whereas, we are making use of inappropriate testing approaches. In this part of study, we intend to provide an overview of issues in EAP assessment. We also intend to criticize the currently practiced testing/ assessment method in ESP programs and provide some solutions.

V. ASSESSMENT IN EAP PROGRAMS

Assessment in EAP programs is carried out for a variety of purposes which can be roughly categorized under the general headings of learner assessment and course evaluation. On one hand, course evaluation helps to assess whether the course objectives are met and whether the course is doing what is designed to do. On the other hand, as with any language course, learner assessment is carried out to assess student performance at strategic points in the course. Learner assessment is carried out for two functions classified as achievement, and placement which are also used in any general English course. As different functions of tests have been well elaborated on by different applied linguists and psychometrics, in this part of the study only a short definition of each is given.

A. Placement Tests

The aim of placement test is to determine the learners' state of knowledge before the ESP program begins. Placement test should indicate firstly whether the learners need the course at all and secondly, should a need be indicated, what form the course should take? A placement test is, therefore, both a proficiency and a diagnostic test. To put it in another way, based on the results of a placement test, one can understand whether the learners are proficient in the skills required or not. If yes, no further instruction is needed. If the learners are not proficient, a placement test can indicate how far and in what ways the learner falls short of the proficiency level.

B. Achievement Tests

Achievement tests are used to determine the extent to which learners have learned what has been taught during a course of instruction. Brown (1996) points out, the results of achievement tests/assessments can be used not only to inform teachers about the learners' attainment of instructional objectives, but also to provide feedback on the effectiveness of program.

VI. CURRENT PRACTICED EAP TESTS

In EAP contexts, there are some recognized and influential forms of tests which are used for the purposes of admission to universities in English-speaking countries and sometimes to local universities in our country. These tests are, TOFEL, IELTS, MCHE, GRE, etc. the emergence of such tests led to generation of a huge commerce in textbooks, sample tests, and specific purpose preparation courses.

Criticizing the EAP tests

The current practice of EAP tests can be criticized from different points of views. The main criticisms are mentioned as follows**:**

1. Unfortunately, in some countries especially in our country, EAP test scores are used as 'criterion-referenced pass-fail indicators'. Such practice may lead to the exclusion of qualified candidates. As we do not whether the candidates with scores below the university cut- offs are able to complete courses successfully or not, the common practice of EAP tests needs to be critically revised.

2. The application of cut-off scores for admission to universities may result is raising different thought provoking questions such as: what is an appropriate level of proficiency for entering the universities?, should this level of proficiency be the same for students of different majors?, and do institutions follow a systematic method of test administration and interpretation?

3. As we know ESP describes language programs designed for groups or individuals who are learning with an identifiable purpose and clearly specifiable needs. And we also know that tests should be measuring what the students are instructed and are expected to learn at the end of instruction program. While, the critical analysis of the EAP tests indicate that these tests are administered in different parts of the world and all the students, regardless of their purposes, needs, and interests, should take the same tests with the same items and forms. The practice of such general tests is against the theoretical assumptions underlying ESP programs because they are based on the objectives of EAP programs.

4. As mentioned in the earlier parts of the study, material design in ESP has gone through different stages of development. It began with register analysis and ended with genre analysis, and probably it will face inevitable changes in future. Whereas, there is evidence suggesting that TOFEL, which is based on structural linguistics and did not contribute to the emergence of ESP, is frequently used in EAP contexts. Therefore, the content and construct validity of these so called EAP/ESP tests can be strongly criticized.

5. As the purpose of ESP programs is to facilitate acquiring the other subject materials not the language itself, the function and the forms of ESP tests should be different from those of general English programs. In other words, we should lay more emphasis on course assessment rather than learner assessment. Therefore, the currently used GRE or IELTS can not be accepted as the only instruments used in evaluation and assessment. Furthermore, the learners should not be assessed in order to diagnose whether they should pass or fail the course but to provide them with remedial instructions so that they can benefit more from the ESP/ EAP programs.

6. It seems that it is necessary to develop tests which are based on all components of ESP/EAP programs. That is, in addition to three traditional testing approaches applicable to general English programs, new approach to testing is needed to account for the recent developments made to ESP program.

VII. Suggestions

Reviewing the literature of testing in academic contexts and criticizing the current practice of academic tests, the following solutions to the prevalent can be given:

a) Academic tests, if administered, should not aim at accepting some and rejecting some others. They should aim at providing information about the students' levels of proficiency and determining the right channel of instruction.

b) New types of tests should be developed to incorporate the contents of ESP programs. These tests should aim at evaluating ESP courses in order to improve the practiced courses.

c) As some tests are used to select students, their reliability and validity should be meticulously estimated. Especially, the threshold level and cut off points of each test should be carefully determined.

d) It must be carefully investigated whether students with high academic tests are really more successful than those with low academic test scores or not. If not, them the administration of these tests to evaluate students' proficiency seems to be not only unnecessary but detrimental to some.

e) Academic tests if necessary, should measure the areas of language which language learners need. If some students do not need speaking skill, then why should we evaluate their speaking skill through TOFEL tests? If they only need writing to accomplish their courses, then why not writing test be used rather than listening tests?

f) Assuming that all the students do not need the same amount of English, why the students who are not good at English are not allowed to study at Ph.D level in Iran, although majority of them are qualified enough to complete their courses?

g) Traditional approaches to testing are not applicable to ESP programs. New approaches to assessment such as portfolio assessment should be practiced. Teachers can not evaluate students' achievements alone. A team including course designers, learners, sponsors, etc. is needed.

VIII. Conclusion

This paper aims at reviewing teaching and testing in ESP program planning. It was concluded that in addition to general characteristics of a successful teacher, an ESP teacher should know the principles of adult learning, should contribute to the development of all the components of ESP program, and should make an effort to get acquainted with the discourse and content of the subject matter which s/he is supposed to teach in order to have meaningful communication.

In terms of testing it can be said that a total innovation in academic tests in terms of both functions and forms   is actually needed. Some of the commonly practiced tests are based on learning and linguistic theories which did not have significant impacts on the emergence of ESP. Therefore, new approach to testing is needed to account for the recent development in ESP materials. And also, it is concluded that instead of traditional tests, the new approaches to tests especially portfolio assessment should be practiced.

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Goudarz Alibakhshi is an assistant professor at Yasouj University, Iran. He has been different courses such as language testing, teaching methodology, ESP, applied linguistics, and linguistics at state universities in Iran. He has published several papers in international journals.

Hassan Ghand Ali has been teaching reading, speaking, writing and general English at Payame-noor University in Iran. He has presented some papers in international Conferences.

Davoud Padiz has been teaching general English at Yasouj University, Iran for a couple of years.

The Differing Effect of Computerized Dynamic Assessment of L2 Reading Comprehension on High and Low Achievers

Reza Pishghadam
Ferdoswi University of Mashhad, Iran
Email: rpishghadam@yahoo.com

Elyas Barabadi
Ferdoswi University of Mashhad, Iran
Email: elyasbarabadi@yahoo.com

Ali Mehri Kamrood
University of Tehran, Iran
Email: amehri@ut.ac.ir

Abstract—**The present study investigates the effectiveness of using a computerized dynamic reading comprehension test (CDRT) on Iranian EFL students with a moderate level of proficiency. Using an interventionist approach, the researchers have developed a software which provides the learners with pre-fabricated strategy-based mediations for each item. The software provides two scores for each learner; a non-dynamic score that represents the learner's ability to answer the test without using the mediations and a dynamic score which represents the learners' ability to answer the test items using mediations in a stepwise fashion. The results revealed that providing mediation in the form of hints contributed significantly to the increase of students` scores, and consequently to the improvement of their text comprehension. Moreover, this study confirmed that low achievers would benefit more than high achievers from a dynamic test of reading comprehension.**

Index Terms—**dynamic assessment, reading comprehension, computerized mediation and development**

I. INTRODUCTION

During the first decade of the twenty first century many L2 researchers have tried to envisage a monistic view of language instruction and assessment which is termed as Dynamic Assessment (DA) (Ableeva, 2008; Anton, 2009; Birjandi & Ebadi , 2010, 2009; Jacobs, 2001; Kozulin & Garb, 2002; Lantolf, 2009; Poehner, 2008, 2007; Summers, 2008). This post-psychometric view of assessment is a direct attack on the traditional psychometric views that support a dualistic view of instruction and assessment. Based on the Sociocultural Theory of mind (SCT) originated from the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's ideas, DA researchers claim that dialectical integration of instruction and assessment into a dynamic activity will bring about successful education. This requires sensitivity to the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) during the assessment procedures which is achieved through the mediators' intervention in terms of providing hints, prompts, and feedbacks.

The sensitivity to each individual learner's ZPD has narrowed down the scope of most DA studies in terms of the number of learners and the number of abilities that are dynamically assessed in a single DA procedure. In response to this problem, DA researchers have recently turned to technology (computer software) to take charge of the mediators' responsibilities, so that a greater number of learners and abilities are assessed in a single DA procedure (Lantolf & Poehner, in press; Summers, 2008; Tzuriel & Shamir, 2002; Jacobs, 2001).

The present study which tries to introduce this new strand of assessment is also more in line with new perspectives toward reading instruction and assessment. Afflerbach (2007) for instance, believes that readers' development should be the main consequence of reading assessment. In fact, readers' development is the cognitive component of reading assessment which focuses on skills and strategies used by developing readers; such process-oriented reading assessment allows teachers to assess in the midst of learning.

II. BACKGROUND

A. ZPD; the Theoretical Foundation of DA

According to Vygotsky (1986), the ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult

guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (as cited in Aljafreh & Lantolf,1994 p. 468). The actual level of development defines development "retrospectively", while the ZPD defines development "prospectively". According to Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller (2003, p.17), the notion of ZPD gives three important insights to the issue of dynamic testing:

1. It focuses our attention on those psychological functions of the child that are emerging at a given moment but that have not yet been fully developed;

2. The concept of ZPD introduces assisted performance as a legitimate parameter of assessment procedure;

3. ZPD helps to conceptualize the difference between the level of actual performance and the learning potential of the child.

B. Dynamic vs. Non-dynamic Assessment

At the dynamic assessment Website "DynamicAssessment.com", DA is defined as "an interactive approach to conducting assessments within the domains of psychology, speech/language, or education that focuses on the ability of the learner to respond to intervention." As Kozulin (2003, p.17) claims: "Instead of studying the child's individual performance, dynamic assessment focuses on the difference between performance before and that after the learning or assistance phase." The most important claim of the DA approach is that the human abilities are "malleable and flexible rather than fixed" (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002, p.1). Deutsch and Reynolds (2002) view DA as a turn or return to process-based instruction in which mediational teaching serves as a tool for developing cognitive skills and fostering meta-cognitive awareness.

DA is different from non-dynamic assessments (NDA) in that it looks at the assessment from an ontologically and epistemologically different perspective, that is, the integration of instruction and assessment through intervention in order to develop the abilities being assessed Poehner,(2008). He also points out that DA and NDA do not refer to assessment instruments, but to administration procedures, so he claims that any assessment instrument can be used in a dynamic or non-dynamic fashion. According to Poehner (2008), three important features can distinguish between DA and NDA:

1. The view of the abilities underlying the procedures

2. The purpose of conducting the assessment

3. The role of the assessor

The major concern of the DA approach is that it considers abilities to be "malleable and flexible rather than fixed" (Sternberg & Grigorenko,2002, p.1. While from a DA perspective abilities are not fixed, NDA considers them as stable traits; the goal of DA is to promote development whereas NDA tries to gather information about past achievement and finally the role of the assessor in static tests is just to conduct the assessment but assessor in DA acts as a mediator (Poehner, 2007; Elliot, 2003).

C. DA in L2 Context

Jacobs (2001) explored the effectiveness of a new version of KIDTALK with preschoolers by adding more dynamic assessment features to the test. The results showed that dynamic assessment had higher predictive validity especially for children coming from low socio-economic status and minority children who are culturally and linguistically different from their mainstream.

Lin (2009) conducted an interactive DA study in an EFL context. He focused on children's speaking and listening skills through providing them with a set of pre-formulated supportive hints and mediations during the test. He concludes that administering such a test would provide us with information about students' needs and their potential responses to mediation. He claims that a successful interactive DA program should meet three factors:

1. It should have clear objectives

2. It should include meaningful tasks that are in the learner's ZPD and that accommodate to pre-formulated hints and mediations.

3. It should enjoy an appropriate rating scale an appropriate analytic approach

Pohner and Lantolf (2005) tried to dynamically assess and promote the French learners' speaking ability focusing on the use of two grammatical concepts of passé compose and imparfait. They also followed an interactionist approach. They concluded that providing mediation would enhance the students' awareness this grammatical concepts which would result in speaking French more accurately. They also claimed that a DA procedure enables the teacher to distinguish the differences between the students who scored the same in a NDA procedure through providing the learners with mediation which results in distinguishing the learners' ZPD.

D. Purpose of the Study

One of the greatest challenges of DA whose aim is to integrate instruction and assessment is to find appropriate mediation or treatment that is effective for a large number of students, (Haywood & Lidz, 2003). To date, nearly all studies done in DA are case studies in which a limited number of participants have taken part, (Lantolf & Pohner, 2008; Ableeva, 2008, Anton, 2009; Birjandi &Ebadi, 2009; Kozulin & Garb, 2002). Based on the above-mentioned post modernistic view of reading assessment, this study ties to develop a computerized dynamic test of reading

comprehension that could test a large number of students' at the same time. This article tries to provide answers for these questions:

1. Does DA procedure affect the EFL reading comprehension of Iranian students with moderate proficiency in English?

2. Do high and low achievers differ in their use of mediation in the form of hints?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

104 university students participated in the study. They were primarily MA students of TEFL. The mean age of the sample was 28 years, ranging from 18 to 44. The participants were randomly selected from different Iranian universities. Persian was their first language and English was their second language. In order to make our sampling fairly homogenous in terms of their level of proficiency, we just included those students whose non-dynamic scores on this test fell one standard deviation below or above the mean and ignored the rest. So we excluded 27 students, while keeping 77 students (27 males and 50 females) who were at the same level of language proficiency.

B. Instrument

The instrument used in this study was CDRT which stands for Computerized Dynamic Reading Test. This software which had already been developed and run as a part of one of the author's thesis reacts to the students' responses automatically through providing feedback and hints that are contingent on ZPD while providing us with two scores (dynamic and non-dynamic). The following are the steps taken in designing the software which are presented in brief.

C. Test Preparation

The most difficult stage of doing the current research was preparing a valid test for this study. In order to find appropriate passages, many versions of TOEFL, IELTS and GRE books were studied by the researchers. The passages were about to lend themselves easily to strategy-based mediation e.g. hints; not to be biased against or in favor of particular students; and finally to have a readability level suitable for Iranian university students majoring in English including both MA and BA students. In view of what was said, the reading passages for this test were selected from the book "preparation course for the TOFFL Test" by Philips (2007). We selected passages from TOEFI iBT since the items and the kinds of reading skills and strategies covered in this book are more in line with C-DA.

Having selected appropriate passages, we then set out to prepare items for each passage. The original items of the TOEFL iBT could not be exactly copied here since they had multiple choice format which is not compatible with dynamic testing in which we are intentionally giving students hints to find the answer. So, we had to design items that had open responses so that giving hints to test takers did not make students guess the right answer. The following are the kinds of items used in this C-DA.

1. Identification items, e.g. identification of a word, phrase or a sentence from the   text,

2. Writing the appropriate answer in the blank space e.g. to choose from the text or write of their own,

3. Choosing the appropriate alternatives from among a number of alternatives given in the item. It is similar to multiple choice format but the likely answer is much more than multiple choice, and consequently there is no problem in giving hints,

4. Insertion items. Test takers are asked to put a given sentence somewhere in the passage that best fits and completes the meaning.

The original passages (non-dynamic form), were followed by 13 and 18 items respectively and each was given 30 minutes to be answered. In the dynamic form of the test, the number of items was reduced to 10 for each passage. These ten items roughly mapped on to the skills covered in TOEFL iBT book.

After passages and items were prepared, the next step was to prepare 5 hints for each item. The hints are arranged from the most implicit to the most explicit. Naturally, in the first hint which is the most implicit one, the purpose is just to signal to the test takers that their answer is wrong and in this way, they are given the chance to go back to the item and try it again, and in the last hint test takers are provided with the right answer. These two hints usually take the following format in the test:

Hint 1 → Your answer is wrong, try again.

Hint 5 → The right answer is …….

Although the first and the last hint of each item remained fixed through the test, the rest of the hints were mainly strategy-based, and their format and composition varied from item to item depending on the skill involved in that item. In fact, these three hints were mainly taken from the "How to answer the question" section of TOEFL, IELTS and GRE books. In this part of these books which directly follow each skill of reading, there are some helpful guidelines for students about how to answer reading comprehension items. In other words, the above mentioned books along with some other books on reading were a rich source of inspiration for those three hints. An example of an item in dynamic test is presented in Appendix A.

D. The Software Preparation

The software package has been designed in such a way that any PC can run it easily. It can be installed properly on any computer provided that it has NET Framework software installed on it. On the opening page of the software, test takers need to type the required information about their names, age and majors in the blank spaces. The next two pages of the software provide test takers with a short and simple description of the software both in English and Persian, and it is up to test takers which description to choose and read. After reading the description, test takers can start the test. By starting the test, the first passage and its first item appear on the screen. They have 20 minutes to read the text. Having studied the passage, test takers can start answering the items. While test takers are answering the items, they have an unimpeded view of the passage. They have four minutes for each item, and if they cannot answer an item within four minutes, the software will move automatically to the next item, and test takers will miss that item. If a student gives a wrong answer to an item, the software will provide him with hints until he gets to the right answer in the fifth hint. When the test is over, a scoring file is created on the desktop. As it is shown in Appendix B, the following information about each test taker is stored in this file.

1. Test taker non-dynamic score. This score is calculated according to the students' first try of each item. In fact, this score is exactly the same as that obtained in traditional tests. To make it comparable with dynamic score of the test, we calculated this score on a scale of 0 to 100 points; five points for each item.

2. Test takers' dynamic score. This score is calculated according to students 'use of hints. The number of hints used by each test taker is subtracted from the total number of hints which is 100. The number that is obtained by this subtraction is the dynamic score. For instance, imagine that a student uses two hints for the first ten items of the test; that is, two hints for each of these items. This student's dynamic score is 80 which is calculated by subtracting the number of hints used by him (here 20 hints) from 100. The non-dynamic score of the same student would be 50 because this student has given wrong answer to the first 10 items of the test, and only after receiving hints he was able to get to the right answers.

3. The number of hints used in each item. The software also takes into account those items missed by test takers by marking the letter "M" in front of them. This mark shows that test takers could not answer the items within four minutes.

4. The total time spent on the test.

E. Test Piloting

Our major goal of piloting the test was to collect information on the test usefulness for the purpose of making revisions in the test. It was in this phase of test making that a number of ELT experts were asked to substantiate the content validity of the test. To standardize the test, the researchers administered the test to a pilot group of 10 students who had roughly the same language proficiency level as the participants of the study, but they were not selected for the study. Specifically, this pre-testing was done to get qualitative feedback on the test e.g. their feelings and reactions toward C-DA, and also to achieve the following objectives.

1. Making some modifications in content of test including both the items and hints,

2. Making some modifications in the software package. Having received constructive feedback on general layout of the software initially from some experts in ELT and later on from test takers, a couple of major changes were made in the software as well.

IV. RESULTS

Providing mediation in the form of hints contributed significantly to the increase of students' scores, and consequently to the improvement of their text comprehension, In order to determine the statistical significance of the difference between means on these two sets of scores, t-test was used. As indicated in Table 1 below, the results of the t-test reveal that there is a significant difference between NDA and DA (t = 3.9, p < .05). It means that the test takers have outperformed in dynamic test.

TABLE 1:
THE INFORMATION REQUIRED FOR CALCULATING T-TEST

Two types of test	mean (SD)	df	t	P
Non-dynamic test	47 (7/90)	152	3.90	.05
Dynamic test	76 (7/38)			

DA seems to be a bigger help to weaker students than stronger ones. One of the main assumptions within the DA procedures is that mediation, will, in general be more effective for low achievers; no matter their low achievement is due to cultural, socio-economic or academic reasons (Tzuriel & Kaufman, 1999; Peña, Iglesias & Lidz, 2001). To test this assumption and to provide answer for the second research question, participants in our study were divided into two subgroups based on their scores on the non-dynamic test: a high achiever subgroup with non-dynamic scores of 50, 55 and 60 and a low achiever subgroup with non-dynamic scores of 35, 40 and 45.

In order to have equal numbers in each subgroup, three participants were excluded from the latter subgroup so in each subgroup remained 37 participants. While the high achiever subgroup could increase its mean score on dynamic test by 25 points, the low achiever subgroup could increase it to 32. That is, the latter subgroup, on average, achieved a bigger increase (e.g.7 points) than the former. This means that individuals' failure in static tests may be due to lack of

opportunities for learning or specific learning difficulties or even cultural differences. So, in line with Tzuriel (2003), we come to this conclusion that DA is especially useful when static tests yield low scores.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of our study indicate that the monistic view of DA, that is, the integration of instruction and assessment can be accounted for via developing software which provides the test takers with pre-planned hints (mediation). The effectiveness of such a test can be described on two planes: first, the students' improvement in EFL reading comprehension; second, providing us with information concerning students' learning potential. The findings of our study are also in line with those of Poehner (2007) and Kozulin and Garb (2002, 2004). Poehner demonstrated that how DA interactions can promote development and provide insights into the learners' functioning. Similarly, Kozulin and Garb indicated that DA is effective in both improving students' reading ability and understanding about their potential for learning. Obtaining information about learners' potential allows us to have a true picture of their abilities. Antón (2009) drew similar conclusion by saying that teachers will misrepresent learners' abilities if they consider only the results of traditional tests.

The researchers believe that there can be other reasons for the learners' improvement in terms of their score, that is, by automatically providing mediation when needed and also by automatically generating each individual's profile, C-DA allows for individuals' self-assessment. This makes test takers more involved in their process of learning; therefore such a test can help students overcome their non-intellective factors such as lack of motivation, fear of failure and anxiety by making the second language assessment more learner-friendly. Indeed, DA according to Haywood and Lidz (2007) is part of idiographic enterprise in which each individual is not compared to others rather comparison is within person not with reference to performance of others.

The second question of this study investigates the performance of high and low achievers to see which group is more likely to make maximum use of mediation. Many DA practitioners (Tzuriel, 2000; Haywood & Lidz, 2007) who follow Feuerstein's Mediated Learning Experience (1980, 1987) and Vygotsky's (1978) concept of ZPD hold the belief that individuals who have not received adequate MLE in the past would benefit more from mediation provided during DA session than those who had rich learning experiences. Thus, in line with the above mentioned authors, we hypothesized that low achievers would make bigger gains on dynamic test and would narrow the gap with their counterparts in high achieving group. The results of our study indicated that low achievers' improvement was about 32% as compared to 25% improvement of high achievers. Although the previously conducted studies (Tzuriel, 2000, 2003; Tzuriel & Kaufman, 1999) on the effectiveness of DA in narrowing the gap between high achievers and low achievers were mainly concerned with students who came from different socio-economic background, this study confirmed that DA in general is especially useful and helpful for low achievers; no matter their poor performance is due to socio-economic factors or different home and school language experiences.

Finally, we hope our work could have made a contribution, however little, to the emergent research on DA especially in relation to second language assessment. While recognizing that preparation of a rigorous dynamic test in an area like second language acquisition is demanding and labor-intensive, the benefits that it offers to our students are attractive enough to attract other researchers to show its potentials. Still much work is needed to be done. One of the limitations of this study concerned the preparation of hints. They were prepared based on some guidelines of some reading books. Further research here is needed to prepare hints in response to the errors students would make on the original non-dynamic test. This would increase the chances of working within students' ZPD. It is also recommended to other researchers to investigate the effect of mediation that is provided by computer and a human mediator simultaneously; human mediator intervenes only when electronically delivering mediation does not work. Given in this way, mediation would be more effective since it can better scaffold those students for whom the fixed mediation provided by computer does not work; this in turn would create the intersubjectivity between the expert (teacher) and the novice (student) that enables DA to further learner's development no matter what is their current status.

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Reza Pishghadam is associate professor in TEFL in Ferdowsi university of Mashhad. His research interests are psychology and sociology of language education.

Elyas Barabadi was born in Taybad, Iran on September 1983. He got his BA in English Literature and MA in TEFL from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.

Ali Mehri Kamrood was born in Ferdows, Iran on April nineteenth, 1983. He got his BA in English Literature from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. Now, he is an MA student of TEFL in University of Tehran, Iran.

Learning Experiences and Academic Adjustment of International Students: A Case Study from Pakistan

Fouzia Janjua
Department of English, International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan
Email: fouzia.janjua@iiu.edu.pk

Samina Malik
Department of Education, International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan
Email: samina.malik@iiu.edu.pk

Fazalur Rahman
Early Childhood Education & Elementary Teacher Education Department, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, Pakistan
Email: fazalaiou@yahoo.com

Abstract—Academic adjustment has been a major problem of foreign students in International Universities. This paper presents a qualitative study exploring the classroom issues based on the difference of learning experiences of the foreign students in a Pakistani University. The research employs a case study methodology with the data collected through an essay writing task set for the students and interviewing the teachers teaching international students. 103 foreign students and 10 teachers constituted the sample of the study. The studies found that majority of the international students acculturate the learning experiences they brought with them from their homelands in order to adjust in the academic environment of the host university.

Index Terms—academic adjustment, international students, Pakistan, learning experiences

I. INTRODUCTION

Foreign students at International universities have always been a source of academic and economic contributions towards their host and sending institutions, for which foreign learners have gained considerable importance in higher education. However, the purpose of international universities is not only to recruit international students, its aim is educating the students for cross-cultural knowledge and to develop communicative competence, more capability and competitiveness in the international professional market (Stacy, 1999). Higher education is becoming more diverse due to different cultural and educational backgrounds of the international students (Hewitt, 2002). Hence education providers should recognize the needs and expectations of international students from different cultural and academic backgrounds, and effectively assist them to achieve their goals (Stacy, 1999). While taking the decision to study abroad, many international students come across difficulties in their academic expedition to be rationally successful in their new learning environment (Carol and Ryan, 2005). They have to face different social and cultural norms and values from the ones they have known, different modes of teaching and learning and different expectations and conventions about participation and performance.

To sustain these learners, the universities need to address the adjustment issues these students face due to the difference of their learning experiences, because one of the major problems of the students joining International universities is that of the adjustment in the academic environment of the host institution. Generally, when international students come in the class, they usually bring their own cultural attitudes towards learning. Their successful approaches of learning in their previous course of study, earlier practices and assumptions lead them into an intense state of "learning shock". Their previous educational experiences usually push them into unexpected academic situations which ultimately affects their performance. It is always significant to unbolt and use their learning experiences and approaches they bring with them (Carol and Ryan, 2005). As they become a great source of improvement for teaching international students. A contribution of this study, despite its limited sample and delimitation to one university, is that it not only draws attention to the effect on the academic adjustment of the foreign learners but also to the need for the universities and teaching staff to become more sensitive to student's problems of adjustment in a new learning environment and differences that may exist, in order to maximize students' learning. The findings may have relevance to teaching and learning context in other international institutions with similar cross cultural student population.

This paper identifies the difference of learning experiences of the international students and its effect on their academic achievement by investigating the multiple learning experiences of the foreign students. As, there is a need to explore their learning experiences which they bring from their own countries, to examine the learning difficulties they have encountered, the challenges they have met and the strategies they have adopted to make academic adjustments in the host university. The two main objectives of the study were: To help academicians and educational managers to devise new strategies for the improvement of the existing strategies in teaching international students and to assist the international students in developing better study approaches. Learning experiences of the foreign learners formed the focus of this study with the development of a hypothesis that these learners come to join the International universities after making up their minds for cultural adaptation but they were unaware of the academic shocks they would be facing there.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Extensive works have been done by many researchers highlighting International students' learning experiences (Bamford, et al., 2002; Kiley, 2003). Studies on learning experiences of the International students in their host countries usually involve features such as cultural, psychological, social and academic adjustments (Edwards & Ran, 2006; Hewitt, 2002). Despite the widespread report of the difficulties International students encounter, majority of the International students make reasonable adaptation to their cultural and institutional demands.

Adjustment is a dynamic and interactive process that takes place between the person and the environment, and is directed towards an achievement of the fit between the two (Anderson, 1994). Thus Academic adjustment is a fit of a learner in the academic environment. Many researchers consider academic adjustment a complex process that impacts on all university students (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones and Callan, 1991). The major reason is that culture of education differs from country to country. For example, universities in advanced countries pay more attention on class participation and the educational approach in these countries looks unfamiliar to international students who are habituated to expect more guidance and support from teachers.

Language is considered one of the greatest academic issues hindering smooth adjustment for international students (Galloway & Jenkins, 2005). This Difficulty hamper in understanding lectures and lack of confidence in their second language inhibits them from participating in class discussions (Zhai, 2002). Similarly teaching styles and approaches that differ from those to which the international students are familiar in their own cultures may also be a source of complexity (Andrade, 2006, Zhai, 2002).

Thus, the importance of adjustment of the foreign students to the first year of the host university has always been a critical issue. With the increased foreign enrollments in the international universities, development and promotion of effective adjustment has become increasingly important and challenging to achieve the desired educational outcomes.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present research was conducted in spring 2008 using the case study technique. Foreign learners of the International Islamic University Islamabad (IIUI) were the case of the present study. All International students of IIUI constituted the population of the study. As per information provided by the admission office of the university, International students joining IIUI come from 45 different countries of the world but the sample turned out of the respondents from the countries providing majority of the International students (see sample). A total of 150 post-graduate International Students, enrolled in different disciplines, were randomly selected from the data gathered from the Admission Office of the university. Random selection technique was used in order to provide an equal chance of selection to the whole population. They were approached telephonically to get their consent to participate in the study. All the participants were fully informed about the study before hand. Out of 150, 122 agreed to participate in the study and 103 out of 122 came and took part in the diagnostic activity designed for data collection. This writing task diagnostic was carried out in the auditorium under the administrative control of the researchers with special arrangements under the Department of Education. Structured interviews were also conducted with 10 teachers of different departments teaching the International students.

The following informants formed the sample of the study.

A. Sample of the Study

The sample was selected using convenient sample method. 103 postgraduate students (46 males and 57 females) and 10 teachers were involved in this study. They all received tertiary education and obtained Bachelor's degrees from their home countries before joining Master courses in IIU. Their ages ranged from 22 to 30 and the mean age was 26 years old. Seventeen participants had working experience prior to pursuing their postgraduate courses in Pakistan as per detail below:

Country	No of respondents
China	38
Afghanistan	18
Somalia	16
Indonesia	15
Arab countries	12
Bangladesh	04
Total	103

B. Instruments of the Study

The instrument used to glean data regarding the research problem was an essay writing activity. An essay writing task was given to the foreign learners at IIUI for the purpose of collecting data to diagnose the problems faced by the foreign students in particular and to help teachers supplement their teaching with the strategies which can treat those problems. On the basis of data collected through this diagnostic activity, a structured form of interview for the teachers engaged in teaching International classrooms was administered in order to investigate the differences and explore the juncture of teaching strategies which can minimize the differences of the learning experiences in an international and a multicultural classroom. Interviews are often employed as an effective tool to understand people's experience and to suggest useful explanations or interpretations to collected qualitative data (Krathwohl, 1997). Therefore, face to face semi-structured interviews of teachers were conducted for the exploration of the participants' perspective on their teaching experiences regarding International students. Audio recordings of the interviews were made and transcribed afterwards and irrelevant details were omitted to shape them according to the requirement of the present study. Time of interviewing each teacher ranged from 25-30 minutes.

C. Essay Writing Task: A Diagnostic Activity

The diagnostic task, for which some 50 minutes time was allowed, required students to write at least eight points on the given topic. They were instructed to address the issues like academic atmosphere, assessment system, medium of instruction, pedagogy and learning, along with any other difference they have noticed. The topic was "The difference of learning experiences in home and host institutions". Almost the entire population completed the task to answer the research question.

The information out of the essays was then systematically arranged into themes and concepts to develop preliminary categories for data analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of the study focused on students' responses to just one primary aspect in the diagnostic task: *"The learning difficulties faced by the learners due to difference in learning experiences between their home country and at IIUI, Pakistan"* The data obtained from the analysis of the students' texts, identified as potential differences included the following: academic atmosphere, assessment system, teaching methods, language issues and learning methods. Most respondents commented that teaching and learning approaches were dramatically different from those in their home institutions. Several explicit distinctions were reported while comparing their learning experiences in the host providers and their home providers.

Increasing number of international students prompt teachers to think about how they teach, what they teach and how to use students' previous learning experience (Carol and Ryan, 2005). The interviews conducted with the teachers engaged in teaching foreign students provided useful data to suggest some practical strategies useful for the adjustment of International students at IIUI.

V. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings revealed that most of the respondents experienced difficulties, discomfort and confusion for which they had to struggle hard to make their adjustment well. Following categories came out of the analysis of the diagnostic task employed for the present research.

A. Assessment System

Data gathered from International students through diagnostic activity revealed that assessment system of IIUI is different from their home institutes. That difference put them in trouble particularly during their initial phase. Indonesian students stated that Pakistani teachers require a lot of length in answers but they were not used to of writing essay-type answers in their native institutions. They further stated that they are not satisfied with the marking/evaluation of Pakistani teachers. Great differences in assessment between Chinese tertiary education and that of IIU were reported. In Chinese institutions, assessment is mainly based on final exams whereas assessment in IIU may have various forms, such as assignments to be made throughout the semester, presentations, midterm exams, class participation and final exams. One of the Chinese student indicated that these assessment forms prompted him to change his learning strategies accordingly. He stated that *"Assignments prepared me for the final examination and were really beneficial"*. Assignments

cannot be neglected because the assessment marks depends on them. Rust (2002) is of the view that assignments are a big source of knowledge which becomes a part of mind. When teachers were interviewed regarding the assessment procedures in practice, all the respondents said that they stress upon written assignments and presentations along with other patterns of evaluation. They added that in the beginning, assignments are a source of frustration (might be due to the difference of learning practices) among the international students but with the passage of time they get used to with the procedure and their input improves gradually.

B. Academic Atmosphere

Academic atmosphere refers to the overall teaching learning environment of the institution selected as case for the present study. International Islamic university Islamabad, Pakistan has a distinctive feature of having separate campuses for males and female learners which is a major difference of experience regarding learning. Following are the prominent issues highlighted by the respondents of the study.

C. Separate Campuses

Separate male and female campuses were highlighted as a different experience for majority of the international students joining the university. According to the data collected, 80% of the female respondents of the study stated that separate campuses makes them uncomfortable because of their isolation from male students who usually were a source of academic help throughout their course of study at home institutions. They further identified the importance of class discussions and assignments in co-education environment where males and females work together in groups and pairs on their projects and males use to take the loads of typing, printing and other tasks to be done outside the institution. Whereas, 20% of the female sample mentioned that they have joined this university only because of the separate campuses. Male respondents highlighted the case saying that this division seems unnatural as human beings are made for each other and their separation from any of the spheres of life is not desirable rather they should make the students learn to live together according to the teachings of Islam.

D. Library Issues

Role of libraries is considered very important for academic services offered by educational institutions. Libraries not only provide students' highly academic support, they turn students' as autonomous learners (Callender, 1996).

This facility is generally an elaborated one at IIUI as compared to an average university overseas. Access to computers and to the Internet in the central library is extremely good, particularly amongst the higher education institutions. But again it is operating differently from others libraries due to the ideology of the division of male and female learners and is also a source of creating a difference of learning experience for international students on the campus. Majority of the respondents of the study, irrespective of the country they belong, claim that the division of library days creates a problem of discontinuity of tempo required for the accomplishment of any academic task. Computers in the library are also short in number and are also provided for one hour per student in which they can hardly complete their tasks. This reduces each student's library access three days a week.

Some of the Afghan students expressed very high about the provision of high quality books relevant to their field at IIU library comparing with the academic support facilities in their country. They further mentioned that text books are expensive and many students find it very hard to purchase them, but the rich central library covers up their economic handicap.

Majority of the students from Somalia were overwhelmingly about their experience at IIU particularly with reference to the computers, internet and digital library. They identified that they learnt the use of computer after joining IIU as they did not had such provisions in their institutions from where they graduated. They further stated that due to the lack of computer knowledge, they experienced difficulties in their initial days but they developed the skills as they recognized it beneficial for their learning.

E. Teaching Methods

Teacher and teaching plays central role in educational institutions. They are the main source of students' satisfaction. The word "teaching" implies number of aspects including, imparting knowledge, providing relevant material and students' (Felix Tetal, 2004).

According to the responses of the interview data of the teachers, teaching international students, the teaching methods are mainly student-centered rather than teacher-centered. Students are expected to be active recipients of knowledge rather than passive listeners. This role of Pakistani teachers is believed to be greatly different from that of the experiences of international students joining IIUI as compared to that in their home tertiary education. Teachers in Pakistani university are considered as facilitators of the students' own independent pursuit of knowledge, not as managers. They provide students with more autonomy and try to cultivate their self-directed learning and independence.

"The way of studying here is different, compared with my country. Some of the teachers specially bring innovation in their teaching. Most of the time, they encourage us to participate and want us to be more independent in every aspect of the work we are doing".

Majority of the Chinese respondents commented that what they studied in tertiary education was mostly based on textbooks. Teachers usually followed the prescribed books, although they may give students some relevant course

materials. These comments are supported by Wan that in China, teacher's role is that of a transmitter of knowledge that is generally based on books (2001). The Afghan students stated that most commonly used teaching methods in Afghanistan were repetition, rote learning, copying and memorizing the text and very little or no student participation take place. The learners are merely passive recipients. Task-based learning or problem-solving activities such as discussions or classroom activities could hardly be seen. In general, there was no promotion of analytical or critical thinking on the part of the students. Learning was conceived as entirely a matter of memorizing the content of the textbooks. They mentioned that opposing to their home country experiences, majority of the teachers here prefer conceptual learning and provide students' opportunities to actively participate in classroom discussion and this change initially put them in a discomfort state. One of the reasons for this, they mentioned, was their poor communication skill.

Majority respondents stated that the teaching content at the International Islamic University was largely connected with contemporary practices, a student from the department of education, gave an example to illustrate her view: her teacher added to the teaching contents of the subject of Educational Planning and Management, right after the preparation of Educational Policy Draft of 2009. This suggests that the updated and practical content is used by the teachers in IIU to accumulate more practical experiences and to enrich teaching contents.

One of the Somali student stated that Somalia has one of the weakest educational "systems" in the world due to political fragmentation and instability. Among number of other key challenges for educational programming, one is its untrained personnel. Institutions of higher learning in their country have inadequate number of qualified instructional professionals who are aware of the modern teaching techniques to help students to find a place in today's modern world. They rely on old-fashioned teaching approaches that do not meet the global requirements of the 21st century. Contrary to this, the condition is far ahead here in IIUI. This difference discomforted the new students but afterwards exposure to a better situation made them learn a lot and get adjusted in the new educational environment.

F. Learning Methods

Working in groups also came up as a potential difference and most respondents regarded working/studying in group as a good way to share ideas among students and to learn from others' experiences. But many students find it difficult due to barriers such as language and multicultural backgrounds. They find it very difficult to be a part of any group. An international student expresses similar concerns:

"Working with the local students is never comfortable for me: Understanding them is not easy, as they are not good at speaking English and I too find it hard".

Group assignments assigned by the teachers could develop team spirit among the group members (Riechmann S, 1988). Working in groups was also reported as a new experience in the academic experiences of the foreign learners. However, it was found that most of them preferred individual assignments over group assignments. One reason they identified was that some group members do not take responsibility of their part and it dampen their enthusiasm for group assignments. Nauman, an Arab student, had a disappointing experience and claimed that "one of our group members never discussed with us, nor did he finish his part. We had to do for him, but he complained that he couldn't understand our points".

G. Language Issue

Although medium of instruction at IIU is English and Arabic. Majority of the students identified problems related with language. They were of the view that teachers do not have adequate command of English language. They use their native language so frequently and that mix coding in teaching produce bad effects on their understanding of the concepts. This factor limits the extent to which students participate in class. They further commented that teachers speak too fast in lectures and use local examples and expressions not familiar to them. They illustrate the ideas in their first language that made Pakistani students satisfied as they do not have a high level English competency.

"The lecturer tends to speak very fast, and most of the time, with a heavy accent".

Most of the respondents stated that they were reluctant to ask questions in class. Their reasons covered several aspects: being accustomed to keeping silence in class, language barrier, lack of confidence, and having no idea. They also indicated that they feel panic speaking in class because they were a minority group in the class. They further stated that their responses were not very much welcomed by the local students. One of the respondents said:

"My ideas have never been appreciated by the teacher and classmates both".

International students also reported that they remain quiet in the classrooms due to the cultural and linguistic differences; they feel fearful of making errors and being humiliated by the classmates. It was further said that the local students speak and discuss in their lingua franca which is alien to the foreign learners and cut them off the discussion. One of the respondents of the study stated:

"Students speak and generate discussion in a language not understandable by the foreigners".

On the other hand, teachers interviewed were of the opinion that at the tertiary level, students need proficiency of English because all teaching is in English, so university has to impose strict admission policy regarding English proficiency requirements. They said that the students from non-English speaking background must qualify a level test of English language proficiency before their admission to the university. It was reported by all the interviewers that the foreign learners are less participative and inactive in the classrooms due to their incompetency in the language of the instruction.

H. Deprivation from Technology

Educational technologies in an institution provide a wide verity of academic support. Guolla (1999) was of the view that insufficient or poor quality of classroom facilities may frustration among students and related to this technology may be a source of satisfaction.

Scarcity of technological facilities at IIUI as compared to other international universities of the world failed to address the expectations of the foreign learners and was identified as a major problem. Majority of the respondents mentioned that multimedia and projector were not provided to them quite often and they were not able to work in a better way. Some commented that labs were not opened 24 hours which created difficulty for the students who had to complete their projects in time.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Despite some of the limitations, this study is significant in that it explores strategic approaches to learning and teaching at the individual and institutional levels by presenting a comprehensive picture of the international students' difference of learning experiences and their academic adjustment in an international educational context. The study led to the findings that majority of the respondents had experience discomfort, confusion, and difficulty in adjustment to the host environment and they had to struggle hard to make their fit. Their adjustability problems were largely influenced by their previous learning experiences and the difference of experiences in their host institution.

The study also revealed that separate campuses sometimes were a source of frustration for the international students but at the same time they are a source of 20% higher intake for women campus. Student-centered or active learning teaching methods are widely practiced in order to impart life long education to the students joining the university. This sometimes becomes problematic for the international students but after the completion of one or two semesters they get themselves adjusted with the teaching methodology and also realize the advantages attached to the approach. Language issue in an international classroom is a natural phenomenon. Fortunately, Pakistan is doing better than its competitors in this regard and the focus of teaching in Pakistan has now shifted to the communicative approach. This approach being of a higher level creates a problem for the international students. To deal with the situation students are encouraged to spend more time learning English language which will further carry them to achieve their educational goals.

All the respondents reported that they had come here at IIUI without any briefing. In this context International students should be made aware of the academic environment prior to sending them abroad. There should be orientation sessions for them in their home countries and if they are not doing this, then it becomes the responsibility of the host university to arrange counseling sessions with the help of senior students already experienced and adjusted ones or they may be attached with the senior student from their home country for guidance to the academic norms and conventions of the host institution.

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Fouzia Janjua is a sociolinguist. She has multiple publications on her credit and has attended numerous National and International conferences. She is serving as an Assistant Professor at the department of English and teaches linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Applied Linguistics and Research Methodology at graduate and post- graduate levels. Many MS and PhD scholars are working under her supervision. She is the author of book 'Reasons for Language Loss: An Empirical Research Conducted in North Pakistan.

Samina Malik is currently serving as Assistant Professor and In-charge at Department of Education, International Islamic University Islamabad Pakistan. She is teaching different courses at different levels of Teacher Education. Along with teaching, she is supervising research work at Masters, MS and Ph. D level students. Her special interests include Research Methodology, Educational Psychology and Trends & Issues in Education. She has participated in numerous National and International Conferences and published many articles in National and International Journals.

Fazalur Rahman did his master from University of Peshawar with distinction. His PhD research is on metacognition of science teachers. He started his career as coordination officer in Teacher Training Project (ADB assisted) for two years. In 1999, he Joined Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad as lecturer in the department of Teacher education. His areas of interest are teacher training, distance education, science education and ICT and pedagogy. Thirty articles have been published in the area of teacher training, distance education, science education, non formal education and ICT in Education. He participated in a number of workshops at national and international level in the area of teacher training and instructional design.

The Relationship between Attention and Consciousness

Mohammad Reza Ahmadi
Islamic Azad University of Rasht, Iran
Email: mr.ahmadi2720@yahoo.com

Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani
Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran
Email: abbas.pouhossein@yahoo.com

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi
Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran
Email: s_m_a57@yahoo.com

Abstract—The relationship between attention and consciousness is a matter of importance and of intense debate among scholars. Many psychologists and brain scientists try to link these two brain processes to each other. This article summarizes the general views concerning the issue. Many psychologists and brain scientists say that top-down selective attention and consciousness can be manipulated independently. The controversies over these two brain processes are as follows: a. One can become conscious of objects or events without attending to them. b. One can attend to objects or events without becoming conscious of them. c. Top-down attention and consciousness are completely different from each other and have the opposite effects. The paper focuses on five main issues. First, it discusses the functions of consciousness. Second, it reviews the functions of attention. Third, ways of processing visual events and behaviors are reviewed. Fourth, independent manipulation of attention and consciousness are discussed. Fifth, opposite effects of attention and consciousness will be discussed. Findings based on the review of the literature indicate that although the two psychological processes- attention and consciousness- may be linked with each other, they have distinct functions.

Index Terms—attention, consciousness, function, brain

I. INTRODUCTION

The two aspects of brain processes, selective attention and consciousness, are intimately connected. Scholars say that we are conscious of what we attend to. But when we withdraw attention from an event or object, we lose consciousness of its attributes and properties. What reaches visual awareness is usually the result of an attentional step. That is, awareness and attention are intimately bound together. Although the results of attention are postulated to reach consciousness, the attentional mechanisms themselves are probably largely unconscious (Crick & Koch, 2003). More recently, some authors argue that attention and consciousness are distinct processes (Iwasaki, 1993; Hard castle, 1997; Crick & Koch 2003; Naccache et al., 2002; Lamme, 2003; Kentridge et al., 2004; Bachman, 2006; Dehaene et al., 2006). This leaves the question of the causal relationship among these two open. Does consciousness require attention? On the contrary, good evidence shows that without attention, consciousness cannot occur (Dehaene, Changeux, Neccache, Sackur & Sergent, 2006). Consciousness examines conceptual grounds (Block, 2005), ontological grounds (Chalmers, 1996), and psychological grounds (Tulving, 1993). Attention examines filtering, anterior and posterior brain circuits, bottom up exogenous and top-down endogenous factors (Posner & Peterson, 1990). There is a dissociation between attention and consciousness based on the recent psychological evidence. The evidences are the following:
   a. An object or event can be attended to without being consciously perceived.
   b. An object or event can be consciously perceived in the near absence of attentional processing.
   c. Top down attention and consciousness can have opposing effects.

II. FUNCTIONAL ROLES FOR ATTENTION AND CONSCIOUSNESS

According to James 'Everyone knows what attention is. It is the taking possession by the mind, in clear and vivid form, of one out of what seem several simultaneously possible objects or trains of thought. Focalization, concentration, of consciousness are of its essence. It implies withdrawal from some things in order to deal effectively with others' (James, 1890). According to many authors, including James, attention as a cognitive faculty is essential for consciousness. For instance, Zeman writes that 'attention is the sentry at the gate of consciousness' (Zeman, 2001). Others hold that 'there is no conscious perception without attention' (Mack and Rock, 1998). Another claim following

this line of thought is that 'what is at the focus of our attention enters our consciousness, what is outside the focus of attention remains preconscious or unconscious' (Velmans, 2000). A number of other scholars point out that consciousness and attention, though closely connected, are nonetheless separate processes of the brain (Baars, 1997; Koch & Tsuchiya, 2006). Claims such as 'awareness is a product of attention mechanism' (Lycan, 1996) and 'attention is not sufficient for consciousness and is not the same as consciousness' (Damasio, 1999) can provide support to the opinion that, *pace* William James, 'no one [really] knows what attention is, and … there may even not be an "it" there to be known about' (Pashler, 1998).

There is a degree of agreement on the idea that attention is a mechanism that selects relevant information from our sense data. In other words, 'the concept of attention refers to one of the basic characteristics of cognition, namely the capacity to voluntary and involuntary give priority to some parts of the information that is available at a given moment' (Naghavi & Nyberg, 2005). As a cognitive function, attention has the remarkable property of being either voluntary or involuntary. This is of crucial importance, because it allows to distinguish between a top-down attention and a bottom-up attention. The former stems from endogenous factors – that is, a degree of control by the conscious mind in order to point at a particular feature (feature-based attention), object (object-based attention) or region in space (focal attention). On the other hand, bottom-up attention is exerted by exogenous factors - that is, stimuli with a certain degree of intensity that fleetingly attract one person's focus.

Consciousness is connected with both kinds of attention. In most cases it is true that bottom-up attention represents the gate for consciousness. It is true that top-down attention occurs in the presence of awareness status. A few recent experiments (Koch & Tsuchiya, 2006) have convincingly put forward that attention and consciousness can be related to distinct activities of the brain. Most of the time we are conscious of the world that surrounds us but without paying specifically attention to its discrete elements. Top-down attention is excluded in perceiving the gist of a scene even if we are generally conscious of it. On the other hand, blind-sight experiments with subject who have lesions in the visual areas occipital cortex support the idea that both top-down attention and bottom-up attention can occur without conscious perception. For instance, 'the blind-sight patient GY has the usual reaction-time advantages for the detection of targets in his blind visual field when attentionally cued, even when the cues are located in his blind field' (Kentridge et al., 2004). In other experiments with normal subjects, 'priming has been elicited for invisible words, but only if the subject was attending to the invisible prime-target pair; without attention, the same word fails to elicit priming' (Koch & Tsuchiya, 2006). These results suggest that the functional roles of consciousness and attention are different. Consciousness seems to be a global process capable to elaborate information in order to give a survey of what is going on inside and outside the body, whereas attention seems to be the capacity of mental states to shift and appreciate the sensory relevance or salience from one perception to another. This difference is expected to reflect into distinct neural correlates for consciousness and attention.

III. WAYS OF PROCESSING VISUAL EVENTS AND BEHAVIOURS

There are four ways of processing visual events and behaviors. They are as follows:
A. Attention with consciousness
B. Attention without consciousness
C. Consciousness in the near absence of attention
We try to review evidence that supports them.

A. Attention with Consciousness

Posner (1994) compares some features of attention with some features of subjective conscious experience. Consider the principle of relative amplification, according to which 'attention to sensory information amplifies brain areas used to process that modality'. He compares this feature of visual orienting with what he calls 'focal awareness': the kind of subjective recognition one has when a target pops out in a search task. He says that attention's sensory amplification correlates with focal awareness. When we perceive something, attention makes the stimulus available to working memory by allowing perceptual representations to broadcast to working memory centers. Once noticed, a stimulus can trigger responses in centers associated with executive control of attention, and this can exert top-down control on perceptual pathways, heightening sensitivity and resulting in increased stimulus contrast, both at the neural and phenomenological levels (Di Russo et al., 2001).

Evidence for a tight link between attention and consciousness comes from research showing that without attention consciousness fails. For example, even a very salient object, presented for a few seconds, sometimes goes unnoticed if it is not properly attended: *inattentional blindness* (Wolfe et al., 2005). Similarly, when a target stimulus draws attention, another target that rapidly follows it in temporal succession is unlikely to be seen: *attentional blink* (Chun &Potter, 1995). Also, a major change between two subsequent images may go unnoticed if attention is not focused on the change: *change blindness* (Tse, 2004). Visual sensitivity decreases when attention is distracted: *load-induced blindness* (Macdonald & Lavie, 2008). Furthermore, damages to various parts of the cortex, including frontal and parietal regions and the temporo-parietal junction (Vallar, 2007), and subcortical areas such as the pulvinar, result in invisibility of stimuli in one hemifield, in particular when there is an competing object in the other hemifield: *visual neglect* (Driver,

1998). These studies show that when attention is not appropriately directed to an object, its conscious report can fail, supporting the view that attention and awareness are tightly linked.

In most of these studies the stimuli are actually perceived, only not in fine detail. When sensitivity is empirically measured under attended and unattended conditions for identical visual inputs, several studies showed nearly no change in detection thresholds (Morrone et al., 2002; Tsuchiya & Braun, 2007). Detection of an isolated object is rarely affected by attention (Braun & Julesz, 1998). Sometimes a relatively large stimulus or change can go unnoticed when attention is not properly directed. We believe this is because subjects do perceive the gist of the image correctly, interfering detection of a less meaningful change in the scene as if it was filled in by the gist. When a stimulus or image change is related to the gist of the scene, attention-related blindness rarely occurs. For example, when natural images are abruptly and totally unexpectedly flashed, inattentional blindness was not observed. That is, subjects can describe the gist of these photos (Mack & Rock, 1998). Similarly, the attentional blink decreases when two subsequent target stimuli differ in their gist compared to when they contain the same gist (Evans & Treisman, 2005; Einhäuser et al., 2007). The case of change blindness is perhaps most telling. A most effective demonstration of change blindness utilizes two photographs with an identical gist (e.g., soldiers near an airplane) with a change that does not modify the gist (e.g., airplane with or without an engine). However, if one uses a minor change that alters the gist between two images (for example, "a log immediately in the path of a man kayaking down a river was changed into another kayak," Sampanes et al., 2008), observers notice the change much faster than when the gist did not change (e.g., the log was replaced by a rock) (Sampanes et al., 2008). It can be concluded that attentional reduction does not usually result in invisibility of an isolated object and that a large change can be missed as long as it does not alter the gist of the scene. Attention and consciousness may not be coupled as tightly as has been thought even in the above cases.

B. Attention without Consciousness

Can observers deploy attention to a stimulus that is not accessible to consciousness? The answer now seems quite definitely: yes, they can. The evidence comes from (1) the attentional manipulation of non-conscious priming and adaptation and (2) the effects of invisible stimuli on attentional cueing. Behavioral (Sumner et al., 2006; Kentridge et al., 2008; Finkbeiner & Palermo, 2009; Tapia et al., 2010; Van den Bussche et al., 2010) and neuronal (Kiefer & Brendel, 2006) non-conscious priming is enhanced by spatial (Kentridge et al., 2008; Finkbeiner and Palermo, 2009; Van den Bussche et al., 2010), feature-based (Melcher et al., 2005; Tapia et al., 2010), or temporal (i.e., cueing when the prime or targets appear) (Naccache et al., 2002) attention. So far, there is no evidence that object-based attention can give rise to non-conscious priming (Tapia et al., 2010). Likewise, the strength of adaptation to perceptually invisible (attributes of) stimuli such as orientation (Kanai et al., 2006; Bahrami et al., 2008a; Shin et al., 2009) or the gender of faces (Shin et al., 2009) is increased by enhancing spatial and feature-based attention to these features. When the invisible orientation is defined by illusory contours, spatial attention is even necessary for adaptation (Montaser-Kouhsari & Rajimehr, 2004).

Kentridge et al., (2004) studied on G.Y., who suffered from blind-sight G.Y. was asked to show whether a target had been presented somewhere in his blind field. On some trials a cue was presented in the blind field just before the target, which either accurately or inaccurately forecast the target location. When the cue was accurate, G.Y. was faster and made fewer errors. They conclude that he is attending in his blind field, and therefore attention can occur without consciousness.

The existence of attentional deployment without conscious registration of a stimulus is also supported by studies that showed attentional cueing effects on sub-threshold or invisible stimuli (Jiang et al., 2006; Sato et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2009; Meteyard et al., 2008; Bauer et al., 2009). Tsushima et al. (2006) even showed that random dot motion stimuli, whose coherency is so low that subjects cannot discriminate their motion direction above chance, are more distracting and detrimental for a concurrently performed central task than motion stimuli with high coherency. Using fMRI, it was shown that compared to supra-threshold motion, sub-threshold motion evokes stronger hemodynamic activation in the motion sensitive cortical area, MT, because the weak sensory stimulus does not activate an area in lateral prefrontal cortex (LPFC) that is presumed to be responsible for inhibiting distracting motion-related activity in MT. These studies demonstrate attention can be directed toward and away from a stimulus or one of its attributes without that stimulus or attribute ever being visible.

C. Consciousness in the Near Absence of Attention

Lamme (2003) conducted the following blindness experiment. Subjects were presented, for 500 ms, with a stimulus consisting of multiple items arranged in a circle. Then a gray screen was displayed for 200-1500 ms, after which the same array as in stimulus 1 was presented, except that in this one an item was changed (Stimulus 2). The changed item was cued with an orange bar, and subjects were asked whether the cued item had changed or not. Subjects performed poorly (60% correct). But when the item was cued in advance during the display of stimulus 1, they performed quite well (100%). When the cue was shown alone in the gray screen that appeared after stimulus 1, they performed as good as they did when the cue was presented during stimulus 1(88%).

This indicates that all of the items in stimulus 1 are conscious and remain in consciousness even after the stimulus is removed, until they are overwritten by stimulus 2. And this also shows that each item is conscious before it is cued, thus, attention is necessary for consciousness. To some, consciousness in the complete absence of attention, is an obvious

fact because we can always perceive stimuli in the periphery, outside the focus of attention. Dual- task paradigms experimentally support this idea: non – trivial tasks, such as scene categorization (Li et al., 2002), gender discrimination (Reddy et al., 2004), and face identification (Reddy et al., 2006) can be performed in the "near absence" of attention.

If there is attention without consciousness, one can ask whether or not there exists consciousness without attention. Can a subject be conscious of an object or of an attribute of an object without attending to the object or its attribute? We focus on evidence in favor of that view obtained with the dual-task paradigm. Other lines of evidence, including pop-out, iconic memory, and partial reportability, have been reviewed extensively elsewhere (Block, 2007; Koch & Tsuchiya, 2007; Lamme, 2010). Top-down attention is employed when there is competition among two or more nearby objects (Desimone & Duncan, 1995). In fact, almost all the neurophysiological studies of visual attention employ stimulus configurations that engender competition of resources by placing two objects within a receptive field of a recorded neuron. Without competition, that is when a single stimulus is presented in an otherwise empty field, it is very difficult to observe any top-down attentional modulation (Reynolds & Chelazzi, 2004). At the perceptual level, if a display contains only a single object in isolation, subjects become aware of it in any attentional state. This simple fact seems to undermine the argument that top-down attentional amplification from the frontal area is always necessary for consciousness (Dehaene et al., 2006).

When there is competition among objects, top-down attention exerts a major gating role for consciousness, yet not all the aspects of vision are affected equally. In the dual-task paradigm, spatial attention is focused at fixation by a demanding task, while performance is measured on a simultaneously presented peripheral stimulus. Dual task studies have shown that simple detection and discrimination of a stimulus in a pop-out array is not compromised when attention is drawn away (Braun & Sagi, 1990; Braun &Julesz, 1998). The gist of a natural scene picture as well as gender and identity of a face can be perceived under dual-task conditions (Fei-Fei et al., 2002; Reddy et al., 2006, Torralba et al., 2006). What is considered a change in gist and what not, seems to be affected by expertise (Werner & Thies, 2000). This suggests that consciousness without attention develops in response to extensive experience with a particular class of images. Discrimination of other stimuli – for example, discriminating an arbitrarily rotated letter "L" from an arbitrarily rotated letter "T" – is severely affected when spatial attention is soaked up by the central task. While it cannot be guaranteed that observers deploy no top-down attention what-so-ever to the peripheral stimulus in these dual-tasks experiments, these experiments do show that subjects can perform certain discriminations but not others in the near absence of top-down attention. Without top-down attention, observers cannot report the details of a scene even though they may erroneously claim to have seen a certain stimulus with high confidence (de Gardelle et al., 2009). Yet, observers often do perceive the gist of the scene and can accurately perceive the category of the object (whether it is a face, a natural scene, a letter, etc.). Even with a mere 30 ms exposure to natural scenes, followed by a mask, observers can clearly perceive their gist (Fei-Fei et al., 2002) even in the absence of any expectation about what type of scene will be flashed. Within these 30 ms, top-down attentional bias could not have taken effect.

IV. INDEPENDENT MANIPULATION OF ATTENTION AND CONSCIOUSNESS

Van den Bussche et al., (2010) examined the magnitude of priming effects by independently manipulating prime visibility and spatial attention, leading to a full factorial 2 x2 design. The prime could signal the same behavioral response as the subsequent stimulus (a congruent trial) or an opposite behavioral response (an incongruent trial). When the prime was invisible and unattended, no priming effects were found. Compared to this baseline condition, both attention and awareness increased the priming effects. However, each manipulation contributed to the priming effects in distinct ways: when attention was directed to the invisible prime, the reaction times for the congruent trials were speeded compared to neutral trials, while when visibility was increased for the unattended prime, the reaction times for the incongruent trials were slowed down compared to the neutral condition. In other words, *attention to invisible* stimuli and *visibility of unattended* stimuli both enhanced the priming effects, but via distinctive neuronal mechanisms. In visible and attended conditions, both the speeding up of congruent trials and the slowing down of incongruent trials occurred.

Kanai et al. (2006) investigated the magnitude of the tilt after effect by independently manipulating attention and consciousness. Attention showed an interesting effect. While feature-based attention increased the size of the after effect regardless of the visibility of the adaptor, spatial attention did so only when the adapting stimulus was visible. While later studies showed that spatial attention could modulate the tilt after effect (Bahrami et al., 2008a) it is still important to know whether different kinds of attention (spatial, feature-based, and object-based) act on visible and invisible stimuli with different sensitivity. As to conscious perception, it had a similar influence as attention, increasing the strength of the after effect. Wyart & Tallon-Baudry (2008) utilized MEG to dissociate neuronal correlates of attention and consciousness. They showed subjects a faint stimulus, which was visible in roughly half of the trials. They manipulated spatial attention by an endogenous cue. In a time-frequency analyses of MEG power, mid-frequency (54–64 Hz) gamma activity was correlated with stimulus visibility for a sustained period, from 250 to 500 ms, in occipital sensors, contra-lateral to the stimulus. Independent of this awareness related activity, high-frequency (76–90 Hz) gamma activity was correlated with attention slightly later, for 350–500 ms in parietal sensors. These effects did not interact with each other and suggest that attention and consciousness may have dissociable neuronal correlates.

V. ATTENTION AND CONSCIOUSNESS OPPOSE EACH OTHER

One of the most striking pieces of evidence for distinctive neuronal processes for attention and consciousness comes from the studies of afterimages. Afterimages were long thought to have their sole origin in the retina (Loomis, 1978; Sakitt, 1976; Virsu & Laurinen, 1977; Wilson, 1997), which is impervious to attention and awareness-related signals (in mammals, there are no central fibers that project back into the retina). However, there is now increasing evidence that cortical sites also play an important role in afterimage formation (Gilroy & Blake, 2005; Tsuchiya & Koch, 2005); for example, removing stimuli from awareness by inter-ocular suppression decreases afterimage duration and strength (Gilroy & Blake, 2005; Tsuchiya & Koch, 2005). Attentional withdrawal increases afterimage durations (Wede & Francis, 2007; Lak, 2008). This is quite counterintuitive because attention is thought to boost neuronal activity (Reynolds & Heeger, 2009), which would result in stronger adaptation (Ling & Carrasco, 2006), leading to longer afterimages.

Afterimages, low spatial frequency target detection and implicit learning are potential examples where attention impairs performance while conscious awareness of the stimuli improves the performance. Oliver & Nieuwenhuis (2005) found that observers report the second of two rapidly presented stimuli more often when they are distracted by an another task than when they are concentrated on the display. This shows that a reduction of attention can be accompanied by an increase in awareness of the target. This striking demonstration may reflect different attentional networks. The attentional blink arises because while the person concentrates on target 1 and as a consequence target 1 and target 2 are not perceived as separate events. The dramatic dissociation between awareness of a target and the availability of attention provides evidence that the two phenomena are not exactly the same. This dissociation may arise because there is a specific inhibition to processing a second target when it is similar to a first target which is still being attended. If concentration of the first target is reduced by a second task the inhibition may be released. If the second target is inhibited when the first is being processed, the reported dissociation may not show that attention is distinct from awareness, but instead that attention may be distinct from performance.

It is essential that the effects of attention and consciousness be studied using identical stimuli and tasks. For example, stimulus parameters, such as the spatial frequency of the adaptor, are critical in determining the afterimage strength (Brascamp et al., 2010). Specifically, the decrease in afterimage duration with decreased visibility only occurs for low spatial frequency stimuli. For high-spatial frequency stimuli, a paradoxical increase in afterimage duration occurs with decreased visibility (Brascamp et al., 2010). These differences make previous research difficult to compare. A recent study (van Boxtel et al., 2010) addressed the separate influences of attention and awareness on afterimage perception, employing a full-factorial design while controlling stimulus and task confounds. Attention and awareness were independently manipulated during the afterimage *induction* phase, while the effects of these manipulations were measured in the afterimage *perception* phase. Attention to the afterimage inducer was manipulated by employing an attention-distracting task at fixation (i.e., the central task). This task could be easy or hard (Bahrami et al., 2008b; Macdonald & Lavie, 2008), ensuring identical visual input while manipulating the levels of attention available to the afterimage inducer. The conscious visibility of the inducer stimulus was manipulated independently of attention by means of continuous flash suppression, a form of inter-ocular suppression (i.e., presenting a very salient object in one eye that completely suppresses the afterimage inducer in the other eye (Tsuchiya & Koch, 2005; Gilroy & Blake, 2005; Tsuchiya et al., 2006). With the suppression present, the Gabor patch inducing the afterimage was not perceived. This 2 □2 design allowed for a full-factorial comparison (i.e., high attention/visible, low attention/visible, high attention/invisible, and low attention/invisible).

van Boxtel et al., (2010) found that attention *decreased* the duration of the afterimage while awareness *increased* the duration of the afterimage. In other words: the effects of attention and awareness opposed each other at the level of perception. There was no interaction between the effects of attention and consciousness. In a related study, the effects of attention and consciousness on afterimages were investigated over a range of spatial frequencies (Brascamp et al., 2010). Using signal detection theory, these authors showed that the difference between the effects of attention and awareness can be pinned down to the different manner in which attention and awareness influence different visual channels. Briefly, afterimage duration is determined by the strength of adaptation of both phase-sensitive and phase-insensitive visual channels (Wede & Francis, 2007; Francis, 2010). The afterimage appears stronger when the adaptation of phase-sensitive channels is increased, because afterimages originate from this adaptation. In contrast, when adaptation in phase-insensitive channels is increased the afterimage looks weaker, because this adaptation increases detection thresholds, thus making the afterimage harder to see (Leguire & Blake, 1982; Georgeson & Turner, 1985). Brascamp and colleagues showed that attention and consciousness increased adaptation in both channels, and that afterimage durations reflect the balance between these two factors. The observed opposite effects of afterimage durations at the perceptual level are caused by a change in balance between both channels (due to adaptation), rather than being due to opposite effects at an early neural level. The adaptation effects of attention and consciousness were correlated for phase- insensitive adaptation, while they were uncorrelated for phase-sensitive adaptation (Brascamp et al., 2010).

VI. CONCLUSION

Functional considerations and the empirical and conceptual work of many scholars indicate that the two psychological processes- attention and consciousness- are distinct neuronal processes with distinct functions. Although these two psychological defined processes may be linked with each other, they are not the same. The issues of selection and control central to the study of attention are important aspects of most theories of consciousness. The study of attention has implicated a cortical network used for orienting that has many similarities to the awareness system as a model for the study of consciousness. We find that there exists considerable evidence for attentional deployment without consciousness, supporting the view that attention is not sufficient for consciousness. We also reviewed evidence for consciousness without attention, which indicates that attention is not necessary for consciousness. Yet many scholars find the evidence for this latter claim insufficiently compelling. We believe that psychophysical studies are not powerful enough to decide this question. In particular, it may never be possible to fully prevent subjects paying some attention to a stimulus on the basis of purely behavioural techniques. Many assume that an important means by which top-down attention influence sensory processing is via cortico-cortical feedback connections (Macknik & Martinez-Conde, 2007). It may be possible to transiently, delicately, reversibly and specifically knock out all top-down cortico-cortical pathways, thereby preventing the subject, most likely a mouse or non-human primate, from exerting any sort of top-down attentional control. This could be achieved via molecular-biology tools, in particular *opto-genetics* (Han et al., 2009; Gradinaru et al., 2010). Unbraiding the complex relationship between attention and consciousness will ultimately depend on such powerful, interventionist tools. Whether the progress in studies of attention and brain mechanisms will provide a complete analysis of consciousness or whether fundamentally new mechanisms will be needed is a matter of opinion, but what seems clear is that there has been very considerable recent progress toward understanding brain networks relevant to the processes of attention and consciousness and the tools are present for considerable future development.

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Mohammad Reza Ahmadi is a Ph.D. student of SLL at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia. He received his M.A. in English Language Teaching (ELT) from Islamic Azad University of Garmsar, Iran. His main interests include listening skill and motivation.

Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani is a Ph.D. student of SLL at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia. He is also a faculty member of English Translation Department at Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran. He has taught English courses for over 11 years at 3 open universities in Guilan, Iran.

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi received her B.A. degree from Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran. She will start her education in M.A. in Computer Network at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia 5 months later.

Speech Act Analysis to Short Stories

Sahar Farouq Altikriti
Dept. of English Language, Al Isra University, Amman, Jordan
Email: smallcrystals@yahoo.com

Abstract—The study of meaning in context is the core of pragmatics, yet to identify or pinpoint what is a context is difficult. In fact, context of the language of any literary work may be felt in the text but not all the time, since understanding literary works may be dependent on cultural contexts which are not found in the text. Hence the paralinguistic and extra linguistic clues of relating meaning to context has to do with the attempt to get at the intended meaning of an utterance. This is clearly explained by Sadock (1974) and Green (1975) as they claimed that speech act theory which hypothesizes that there should be a one to one relation between surface form and encoded illocutionary force for direct speech acts meets with unsurmountable difficulties. From theoretical and experimental perspectives, there were several studies concerning speech act theory as one of the basic elements for studying pragmatics. Literary texts, novels, and drama have received a quite good pragmatic attention, but not much has been paid to short stories. As such, the present study was carried out with the aim of examining three short stories and analyzes them pragmatically. It has come to the findings that the use of speech acts fluctuate both in quantity and type from one writer to another and from one theme to another.

Index Terms—Speech Act Theory, narrative fictionality, 'Acme', 'Post Haste and 'The Happy Prince'

I. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Preliminaries to Speech Act Theory

Sometimes, when we want to teach our children important factors in life such as "Don't play with fire", "Behave well", "Stop yelling", etc., then, we are using statements that reflect a paradigmatic use of language, i.e., we can make requests, ask questions, give orders, make promises, give thanks, offer apologies, and so on. But, to infer what is said (considering its form and context) is an essential ability for the creation and reception of coherent discourse which would lead to a successful communication. Reaching such ability requires the knowledge of the physical and social world and assumptions about the knowledge of the people with whom we are interacting. Formulating this knowledge is the essence of what is called the *Speech Act Theory*. Speech act theory provides us with a means of digging beneath the surface of discourse and establishing the function of what is said (Cook 1992). In other words, speech act theory attempts to explain how speakers use language to accomplish intended actions and how hearers infer intended meaning form what is said. Although speech act studies are now considered a sub-discipline of cross-cultural pragmatics, they actually take their origin in the philosophy of language:

It was for too long the assumption of philosophers that the business of a 'statement' can only be to 'describe' some state of affairs, or to 'state some fact', which it must do either truly or falsely. (…) But now in recent years, many things, which would once have been accepted without question as 'statements' by both philosophers and grammarians have been scrutinized with new care. (…) It has come to be commonly held that many utterances which look like statements are either not intended at all, or only intended in part, to record or impart straight forward information about the facts (…). (Austin, 1962, p.1)

In 1930s, there was a belief that unless the sentence can be verified, it is meaningless. This was based on the doctrine of "Logical Positivism" where most of the ethical, aesthetic and literary discourses and everyday utterances were simply meaningless. In contrast to this rather limited view, which when actually compared to the full range of utterances in the real world is forced to exclude most of them as simply nonsensical; Austin, particularly his **How to Do Things with Words**, proposes a second category of utterances that are not subject to the truth/falsity conditions of propositional knowledge. Rather, these exist as acts in themselves that is--as Austin dubs them--as *performatives*. The peculiarity of the performative utterance, in contrast to the constative, is that it does not describe a state of affairs independent of itself, but that it is itself the reality it describes. It is therefore a self-reflexive utterance. Austin's archetypal examples of these are the acts of naming, marrying, bequeathing and betting. In other words, as Levinson (1983) states:

Performatives are, if one likes, just rather special sorts of ceremony. And unlike constative, which are assessed in terms of truth and falsify , performatives can only be assessed as felicitous or infelicitous, according to whether their felicity conditions are met or not.

Moreover, Van Oort (1997) argues that utterances such as "I name this ship HMS Hermes," does not describe a state of affairs in the real world, rather it brings a state of affairs *into existence* by virtue of the utterance. The act of naming is simultaneously the reference of this statement and the performative is therefore, in the most rigorous sense, an *act* and not a representation of something else, at least not in the preferred constative sense of a representation. Thus, Austin (1962) presented a distinction between two types of Performatives: **Explicit and Inexplicit**. Austin contended that the

explicit performative utterances are, unlike statements, neither true nor false. For example, a performative promise is not, and does not involve, the statement that one is promising. It is an act of a distinctive sort, the very sort (promising) named by the performative verb, such as , "I promise to do the dishes" in an appropriate context is not only a matter of saying or describing something , rather, in making this utterance the promise is performed. Since promising is an illocutionary act, the utterance is thus a performative utterance. On the other hand, Austin pointed out that the sentence may be uttered without the intention to keep the promise then it is called "infelicitous" according to felicity conditions. However, there are also "implicit", or "inexplicit" performatives; for instance, if someone says "Go", in order to command someone to leave the room then this utterance is part of the performance of a command; and the sentence, according to Austin, is neither true nor false; hence the sentence is a performative; yet, it is *not an explicit* performative, since it is not clear that the speaker is performing an act of command. In other words, as Verscheuren (1979) (cited in Mey 1993,p.109) states:

We are dealing with a performativity 'continuum' running all the way from institutionalized speech act such as 'to baptize' *to everyday verbs that occasionally can take on a performative character.*

Moreover, the same utterance could at the same time constitute three kinds of acts:

1- a locutionary act (or locution): The particular sense and reference of an utterance;

2- an illocutionary act (or illocution): The act performed in, or by virtue of, the performance of the illocution; and

3- a perlocutionary act (or perlocution): The act performed by means of what is said.

Austin focused on the second of these acts. The locution belongs to the traditional territory of truth-based semantics. The perlocution belongs strictly beyond the investigation of language and meaning since it deals with the results or effects of an utterance. The illocution occupies the middle ground between them. This ground is now considered the territory of pragmatics, of meaning in context. Austin emphasizes his claim that only the verbs used to describe illocutions can be used as performative verbs (Bates 1976, Lyons 1977, van Dijk 1977, Levinson1983; Brown & Yule 1983 Spenader, J. 2004).

In 1969 & 1979 Searle and many others have developed the basic elements of Austin's speech acts to become what is called **Speech Act Theory**. Searle has introduced the notion of an 'indirect speech act', which in his account is meant to be, more particularly, an indirect 'illocutionary' act. Applying a conception of such illocutionary acts according to which they are (roughly) acts of saying something with the intention of communicating with an audience, he describes indirect speech acts as follows:

In indirect speech acts the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and nonlinguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer. (Searle, 1975,p.60)

An account of such act, it follows, will require such things as an analysis of mutually shared background information about the conversation, as well as of rationality and linguistic conventions.

In connection with indirect speech acts, Searle introduces the notions of 'primary' and 'secondary' illocutionary acts. The primary illocutionary act is the indirect one, which is not literally performed. The secondary illocutionary act is the direct one, performed in the literal utterance of the sentence (Searle, 1985). In the example:

(1) Speaker X: "We should leave for the show or else we'll be late."

(2) Speaker Y: "I am not ready yet."

The primary illocutionary act is Y's rejection of X's suggestion, and the secondary illocutionary act is Y's statement that she is not ready to leave. By dividing the illocutionary act into two subparts, Searle is able to explain that we can understand two meanings from the same utterance all the while knowing which the correct meaning to respond to is. Searle, in his doctrine of speech act, attempts to explain how it is possible that a speaker can say something and mean it, but additionally mean something else. This would be impossible , or at least it would be an improbable case, if in such a case the hearer had no chance of figuring out what the speaker means (over and above what she says and means). Searle's solution is that the hearer can figure out what the indirect speech act is meant to be, and he gives several hints as to how this might happen.

Tsohatzidis (1994) agrees with Searle in that the logical theory of success and satisfaction for illocutionary acts can be developed on the basis of few basic principles:

(a) Each illocutionary force can be divided into six types of components which are an illocutionary point, a mode of achievement of that point, preparatory and sincerity conditions and the degree of strength;

(b) The set of illocutionary forces is recursive;

(c) The conditions of success of elementary illocutionary acts are entirely determined by the components of their force and their force and their propositional contents;

(d) The conditions of satisfaction of elementary illocutionary acts are entirely determined by their propositional content and their direction of fit.

Due to these principles, the relation between the propositional content and the world is realized through the performance of a speech act and from which the direction of fit between words and things may be interpreted. Such direction can be clearly realized in terms of four levels, (Searle1979, Leech 1983, Mey1993):

(1) The words ― to ― world direction of fit:

Once the illocutionary act is satisfied, its propositional content fits the state of affairs existing in general independently in the world. This expresses a belief, making words fit the words and committing the speaker to the truth of what is asserted, for example: asserting, reporting, instructing, concluding, responding, wishing, etc.

(2) The world – to – words direction of fit (commissives and directives):

When the illocutionary act is satisfied, the world is transformed to fit the propositional content. All speech acts with the commissive and the directive points, such as promises, vows, requests and orders, have the world direction of fit. While commissives express, an intention, making the world fit the words and counting as a commitment for the speaker to engage in a future course of action, for example: offering, inviting, vowing and promising.

(3) The double direction of fit (declarative):

If the illocutionary act is satisfied, the world is transformed by an action of the speaker to fit the propositional content by the fact that the speaker represents it as being so transformed. Thus, such speech acts do not express any psychological state by making both the words and the world fit the words and the point of which to bring a change in (institutional) reality, such as baptizing, declaring war, excommunicating resigning, sentencing, etc.

(4) The empty direction of fit (expressive):

No direction of fit do exists as long as a certain psychological state is expressed and in which a wide range of psychological states can be expressed. Therefore, the proposition ascribes a property or act to the speaker or the hearer, for example: apologizing, thanking, congratulating, greeting, etc.

Searle further distinguished the "illocutionary point" from both "illocutionary act" and "illocutionary force". Hence, he identified the five primitive illocutionary forces which are the simplest possible forces and they are the following:

1- The force of assertion which is named by the performative verb "assert" and realized in the syntactic type of declarative sentences;

2- The primitive commissive illocutionary force which is named by the performative verb "commit";

3- The primitive directive illocutionary force which is realized in the type of imperative sentences;

4- The force of declaration which is expressed in performative utterances;

5- The primitive expressive illocutionary force which is realized in the syntactic type of exclamatory sentences.

Austin's taxonomy of speech acts is not flawless since it involves many faults such as inconsistency and incompleteness. As a result of these faults, Searle focused only on four of the twelve criteria of the classificatory procedure of the speech acts (Illocutionary Point, Direction of Fit, Psychological State, and Content). Thus, two conditions were raised:

1- Reference to Speaker 'S' or Hearer 'H';

2- Context Conditions.

On these bases, Searle (1979), as an improvement of the classification of the speech acts proposed by Austin, classifies speech acts into five categories, (Searle 1985, Leech 1983, Leech and Thomas, 1985, Mey 1993, Yule 1996):

1- Representative: these speech acts carry the values 'true; or ' falls', i.e., they commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition such as asserting, reporting, instructing, concluding, etc.

2- Directives: the speaker's role is to get (to direct)the hearer to do something (or towards some goal)

3-Commissives: Seale calls it "unexceptionable", i.e. the obligation created in the word by commissives is created in the speaker not in the hearer. So they commit the speaker to some future action, such as offering, threatening, promising, etc.

4- Expressives: these express an inner state of the speaker. They tend to be intrinsically polite as in greeting, thanking, congratulating, etc.; and the reverse is true as in blaming and accusing.

1- Declarations: these show the correspondence between the prepositional content and reality and as Searle calls "a very special category of speech acts", such as resigning, dismissing, christening, naming, sentencing, etc.

Undoubtedly, it is realized that Searle's classification resembles Austin's, but, in one respect, Searle's taxonomy is superior to Austin's. Hence, Searle has introduced the notion of an 'indirect speech act', which in his account is meant to be, more particularly, an indirect 'illocutionary' act. Applying a conception of such illocutionary acts according to which they are (roughly) acts of saying something with the intention of communicating with an audience, he describes indirect speech acts as follows: "In indirect speech acts the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and nonlinguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer." (Searle 1975, p.67). An account of such act, it follows, will require such things as an analysis of mutually shared background information about the conversation, as well as of rationality and linguistic conventions. In connection with indirect speech acts, Searle introduces the notions of 'primary' and 'secondary' illocutionary acts. The primary illocutionary act is the indirect one, which is not literally performed. The secondary illocutionary act is the direct one, performed in the literal utterance of the sentence. In the example:

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to. With his doctrine of indirect speech acts Searle attempts to explain how it is possible that a speaker can say something and mean it, but additionally mean something else. This would be impossible, or at least it would be an improbable case, if in such a case the hearer had no chance of figuring out what the speaker means (over and above what she says and means). Searle's solution is that the hearer can figure out what the indirect speech act is meant to be, and he gives several hints as to how this might happen.

B. The Pragmatics of Narrative Fictionality

From the late 1970s onwards, there ensued attempts to apply speech act theory in the interpretation of literary texts. These first contributions suggest the analytic value of speech act analysis for literary criticism. At the same time, however, these contributions are almost exclusively devoted to drama, owing, of course, to the centrality of dialogue in this genre. Yet the analysis of speech acts also offers new insights into narrative, as this research sets out to show.

Walsh (2007) clearly pointed that fiction is usually understood to have a second-order relation to the real world, via the mimetic logic of fictional representation, i.e., it represents events, or imitates discourses, that we assimilate through nonfictional modes of narrative understanding. Narratives are constructs, and their meanings are internal to the system of narrative. For some theorists, this general quality of narrativity subsumes the concept of fictionality entirely: if all narratives derive their meaning from their relation to other narratives, rather than any direct purchase on reality, then it no longer makes sense to use this second-order kind of relation specifically to characterize fiction. Since the logic of narrative representation has no benefit to the distinction between fiction and nonfiction, then the focus of theoretical attention is more about the act of fictive narration rather than the substance of fictional narrative. This, hence, leads to an important question:" How can a fictive narration be a referential act, or even an act of communication?" To have a clear understanding, there is a need for pragmatic approach that is advocated to the issue of fictionality, (Tranvott, E.C. and Pratt, M. L. 1980).

As text examples, three short narratives were chosen in which the stories' overall meaning resides to a large extent in the particular speech acts by the characters in communication with each other, in the order these individual speech acts are sequenced in each story, and in the way the figural speech acts are contextualized with speech acts on the level of narrative transmission. These stories are:

1- *'Acme'* by Colin Galsworthy,
2- *'Post Haste'* by Colin Howard,
3- *'The Happy Prince'* by Oscar Wild.

In the following sections, a brief review to each story will be presented and followed by the pragmatic analysis for the utterances stated by the characters of the stories. In addition, breakdown of speech acts and their illocutionary forces realized out of the data analysis are displayed in three tables.

II. APPLICATION OF PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS TO THE DATA (*'ACME'*, *'POST HASTE AND 'THE HAPPY PRINCE'*)

A. The Analysis of ''Acme' by Colin Galsworthy (1867-1933)

The story is concerned with the notion of perfection, in both friendship and self confidence. Galsworthy has a friend who is also a writer named Bruce and in his 60s. Bruce is an excellent writer once considered by people as genius, but because of his old age and sickness and because of the loss of self-confidence, he deprived himself from people and fame. Galsworthy is an example of a true friend who tried and succeeded afterwards in raising Bruce's self-confidence in him and in his works as well.

1. Representatives

Through the analysis of the text "Acme", it is the representative speech act that is highly used with (49) instances and represents 23% out of the total number of utterances in the whole text (212). Within this speech act there are forces which have different frequencies. In the following example, there are 33 instances of an assertive illocutionary force representing 17% out of the total (49):

Example (1): You live out of the world — you don't realize what humdrum people want; something to balance the grayness, the — the banality of their lives. They want blood, thrill, and sensation of all sorts. You didn't mean to give it them a benefit, whether you've done them a benefit, whether you've done them a benefit, whether you wish to or not, and the money's yours and you've got to take it.

This is an example of a representative speech act of an assertive illocutionary force realized when Galsworthy signed a contract with cinema to make out of Bruce's story a film. Bruce expresses his intention to break the walls of isolation and let his works be well known to people.

A concluding illocutionary force occurs in the text in 3 instances making 6% out of the total (49), such as when Galsworthy addresses Bruce in the following example:

Example (2): I know that you hate and despite the film.

On the other hand, the responding illocutionary force is revealed in 13 instances and represents 27% out of the total (49). Consider one of Bruce's answers to Galsworthy's question:

Example (3): Galsworthy: Who's attending you?

Bruce: Doctors! They take your money, that's all. I've got no money.

2. Directives:

The presence of this directive speech act in the text is limited to 6 instances of utterances making up 3% out of the total (212), and most of its types occur with varied frequencies. Consider the following examples:

Example (4): May I have a look at your skit, when you've finished it?

In this example Galsworthy is cautious in his request to see the skit since Bruce considers his own new story is nothing but a skit. Thus, this utterance is a directive speech act of requesting illocutionary force which represents the least in frequency representing 33% out of the total (6). In another situation, Bruce was completely shocked when he knew that Galsworthy had sold the scenario to the cinema as in:

Example (5): What? Who'd print a thing like that?

This is an example of a directive speech act of a questioning illocutionary force. This type is realized three times making up 50% out of the total (6), whereas the responding illocutionary force occurs twice representing 33% out of the total. This latter type can be clearly shown when Galsworthy asked Bruce for the possibility to keep the skit with him for a long time, but the answer was a literal interpretation of Bruce's lack of self confidence that consequently raised the following question:

Example (6): Skit? What Skit?

It is worthy saying that directive speech act has no reference to an ordering illocutionary force in the text.

3. Commissive:

Through data analysis, it is noticed that commissive speech acts has only one reference in the text. This is shown when Bruce expressed his acceptance to give Galsworthy the skit:

Example (7): Take the thing — it's amused me to do it.

Bruce in this statement clearly reflects his lack of confidence to what he has achieved calling the skit as "thing", i.e. unworthy. This speech act is of an offer illocutionary force making up 100% out of the total.

4. Expressive

The realization of expressive speech act is shown in 8 utterances representing 4% out of the total (212). Within this speech act, there are five illocutionary forces where only three of them occur in the text:

Example (8): Good God! / Oh! / Ah! / That!

These are examples of surprise illocutionary act occurring in 5 situations with 62.5% out of the total (8).

Example (9): Hello!

This is a greeting illocutionary force presented in 2 utterances at 25% out of the total (8).

Example (10): Thanks

It is the only instance of thanking illocutionary force making up 12.5% out of the total (8).

B. The Analysis of 'Post Haste' by Colin Howard

The story is about the writer and an absent-minded character, Mr. Simpson. The writer happened to meet Mr. Simpson near post office one night. Mr. Simpson wanted to post a letter, but he noticed that the envelope was not stamped and he had no money to post letter. So he requested the writer to lend him three half pence to get stamps out of automatic stamp machine; but the writer could not find any coins either. However, the writer accompanied Mr. Simpson to his house for having three half pence. After getting the coins and thanking the writer, Mr. Simpson left for post office. As Mr. Simpson dropped the coins in the machine one by one, no stamp came out from it. The stamps were out of stock in the machine. Due to confusion and nervousness, the envelope dropped from his hand into mud. After several frustrating moments to find stamps, the writer suggested him to post the letter unstamped as there was no way left. Once Mr. Simpson posted the letter, he extended his thanks to the writer for his co-operation in posting the letter. At that moment, Mr. Simpson was confused but he did not tell the writer that the letter was simply an invitation to dinner. The next morning, the writer had to pay three pence to the postman for a blue envelope with a large mud blot on it. He, then, came to understand the mysterious behavior shown by Mr. Simpson at the time of parting at night. The letter was, in fact, addressed to the writer.

1. Representative:

Representative acts are of highest frequency in the text under analysis where 27 instances making up 21% out of the total (127). Consider the following example:

Example (11): The fact is, we're still quite strangers round here, and —well, I'm rather lost to tell you the truth.

In this example, Mr. Simpson is trying to explain and assert that both he and his wife are new in the district, so they need help from others such as Mr. Colin. It is a good example of the representative speech act of an assertive illocutionary force with the frequency of 22 at 81% out of the total (27). In another situation, while Mr. Colin and Mr. Simpson were busy trying to post the letter, Colin asked Simpson for the necessity to post the letter at that specific night and immediately Simpson confirmed with the following reply:

Example (12): Dear me, Yes! My wife was most insisted about that. She said I wasn't to — it's — well, I don't know it's extraordinarily important, but — but I'd better post it, if you know what I mean.

This is a responding illocutionary force of a representative speech act occurring 4 times making up 15% out of the total (27). On the other hand, the data analysis revealed that only instance of the wishing illocutionary force exists in the text with 4% out of the total (27):

Example (13): Perhaps somebody else

Colin, in this sentence, hopes and wishes to be helped by someone who would lend Mr. Simpson, other than himself, three half pence to get stamps out of automatic stamp machine.

2. Directive:

Directive speech act occupies the second in role among other types in the text under analysis. It is realized in 13 utterances accounting 10% out of the total (127). The highest frequency goes to the illocutionary force of question as it occurs in 8 instances making up 62% out of the total (13).Such illocutionary force was clearly shown when Mr. Simpson realized that he had no money while he was heading to the post office to post the letter and, hence, asked Mr. Colin to lend him the cost of the stamp:

Example (14): I wonder if you could lend me three pence.

After wasting a lot of time in looking for stamps, suddenly and finally Colin managed to make Simpson post the letter without the stamps. This was due to the fact that it would be the recipient's problem to pay for the stamps if they were not put by the sender:

Example (15): Now hurry or you'll miss the last collection.

This is an example of a directive speech act with an ordering illocutionary force presented twice in the text at 15% out of the total (13).

3. Commissive:

Three instances of the commissive speech act has been revealed out of data analysis making up 2.3% out of the total (127). Although three utterances of commissive act occur, yet they have only been represented by the illocutionary force of offer accounting 100% out of the total (3). Simpson is a complaining person who kept asking Colin for help because he and his wife are new in the neighborhood and consequently he is always in need of help to go anywhere. The following utterance is an example:

Example (16): Here, I'd better come along with you

4. Expressive:

As a result of data analysis, the expressive speech act occurs in 10 utterances making up 8% out of the total (127). Within this speech act three illocutionary forces (apologizing, thanking and surprise) occurring in 3 instances and accounting 30% out of the total (10); whereas wishing illocutionary force occurs only once and represents 10% out of the total (10). The following is an example of many others where Simpson apologizes for the inconvenience that he makes to Colin:

Example (17): Sorry! I — I rather think I've forgotten the way again.

C. The Analysis of "The Happy Prince" by Oscar Wild

One night a little swallow flew over the city where a beautiful statue stood. The statue was covered by thin leaves of fine gold; for eyes he had two sapphires and a large red ruby glowed on his sword. When the prince whom the statue was made after was alive he did not know what tears were - he lived in a palace where sorrow was not allowed. The court used to call him the Happy Prince, and when he died the Town Councilors decided to build the statue, which was set up so high that he could see everything in the city. The swallow decided to sleep on the statue's feet, but just when he was putting his head under his wings, he felt a drop of water, and then another. When he looked up he realized that the Happy Prince was crying because he could see the misery and ugliness of his own city. So the Happy Prince asked the swallow to be his messenger and help some of the miserable people by giving them his eyes of sapphire and the ruby from his sword. As a result of this action he became blind and the swallow had to fly over the city in order to tell him what he had seen. At last the swallow realized that he would die because of the cold winter, and he decided to stay with the Happy Prince. The Prince asked the swallow to kiss his lips as he loved him, and once the swallow did so he fell down at the Prince's feet. At that moment a crack sounded inside the statue as the Prince's heart broke. Early the next morning, the Mayor decided to melt it in a furnace. The broken lead heart, however, did not melt, and so it was thrown away on alongside the dead swallow, the Prince's final friend. God decreed that both the swallow and the Prince would live happily in His presence forever.

1. Representative:

Through the analysis of the data, the representative speech act carries the high frequency among the other types found in the story of "The Happy Prince". It is presented in 93 utterances making up30% out of the total (307). The following is an example of the assertive illocutionary forces which occur in 65 instances with 70% out of the total (93). It is realized when the happy prince tried to do the best for his poor people of his country through his media, i.e. the swallow:

Example (18): Far away, far away in a little street there is a poor house. One of the windows is open, and through it I can see a woman seated at table.

Her face is thin and worn,……………………… so he is crying.

The other types of the representative speech act vary in frequency. The next in role come the responding illocutionary force where 19 utterances making up 20% out of the total (93); whereas both responding and wishing illocutionary forces are of less frequency respectively. The former type occurs in 7 utterances with 8% and the latter appears only twice with 2% out of the total (93). Consider the following example:

Example (19): As he is no longer beautiful he is no longer useful.

It is a concluding illocutionary force expressed by the compilers who decided to remove the golden parts and the jewelry eyes from the statue of the happy prince and give them to the poor people of the kingdom.

2. Directive:

In the case of directive speech act, 23 utterances have been realized with 7.4% out of the total (307). Requesting as well as question illocutionary forces occur in 9 instances at 39% out of the total (23):

Example (20): Swallow, Swallow, little Swallow, will not stay with me one night longer?

Example (21): Who are you?

On the other hand, ordering illocutionary force have been realized in 5 utterances making up 22% out of the total (23), whereas no instances of responding illocutionary force do occur in the text under analysis.

3. Commissive:

Commissive speech act has been realized in 8 instances in the text making up 3% out of the total (307). The only type of commissive speech act that occurs in the text is that of promising with 100% out of the total (8). One of these cases is when the swallow promised to stay with the prince in that cold night saying:

Example (22): It is very cold here, but I will stay with you for one night, and be your messenger.

4. Expressive:

As the data under analysis shows, there are 12 utterances of expressive speech act occurring with 4% out of the total (307). Three illocutionary forces within the expressive speech act vary in their frequencies respectively. Concerning surprise illocutionary force, there are 9 instances with 75% out of the total (12). The following is an example of the surprise made by the councilors about the shabby look of the prince:

Example (23): Dear me! How shabby the Happy Prince looks!

Apology illocutionary force also occurs in the text with 2 utterances at 17% out of the total (12), whereas one instance of thanking illocutionary force with 8% out of the total (12) does occur in the text under analysis. In the following example the prince expresses his thanks to the Swallow for the help the latter did

Example (24): Thank you little Swallow.

It is worth stating that through the data analysis to all three texts; there are no instances of declaration speech act that do occur.

III. DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Although most of the utterances in the three stories under analysis are of direct speech act type, yet, there is an instance of indirect speech act in the first and second text, whereas the third text lacks any indirect speech act. Breakdown of direct & indirect speech acts is clearly displayed in Table (2). In text one, there is one utterance with 0.47% out of the total (212) where Galsworthy tries to confess to Bruce about what he did with the latter's skit:

Example (25): You remember the skit you wrote, and gave me about six weeks ago?

In this example there is a contrast between the assertive form of the utterance and its function as a question. In the second text under analysis the same perspective is realized in one instance at 0.78% out of the total (127). This is shown when Colin asks Simpson whether it is necessary to post the letter in that specific night:

Example (26): I suppose it must go tonight?

All the frequencies and percentages mentioned above in the analysis of the three texts are clearly presented in Table One; whereas, those of direct and indirect speech acts are presented in Table Two.

IV. COMPARISONS

In this part of the study, the three analyzed short stories are compared to show if there is any difference between the types of speech acts with reference to their illocutionary forces. Such comparison is conducted in terms of the process of testing based on the "Z score" formula where X1 and X2 refer to the observed proportions (Dixon and Messy, 1969):

$$Z = \frac{X1 - X2}{\sqrt{P(1-P)[1/N^1 + 1/N^2]}}$$

Z score is used to find out whether the differences between proportions constitute any distinctive characteristics and the significance is the tabulated score1.96 at 0.05 levels. Results of the Three Texts' Analysis are shown in Table Three.

A. The Comparison between the Texts

1. Representative:

In the light of the analysis presented previously in this study, the occurrence of speech acts and their illocutionary forces vary with significance. The following are the frequencies and percentages of each act in the three selected texts:

1- Text one comprises 212 utterances out of which 49 instances are of a representative speech act representing 23% out of the total;

2- Text two consists of 127 utterances out of 27 instances are of representative speech act making up 21% out of the total;

3- Text three has 307 utterances out of which 93 instances are of representative speech act with 30% out of the total.

The comparison made between each two texts out of the three separately is based on the application of the Z score mean. The first comparison between "Acme" and "Post Haste" reveals that there is no significance since the computed Z score, 0.4, is smaller than the tabulated value, 0.05. On the other hand, there is a significant difference between "Post Haste" and "The Happy Prince" as the calculated result out of the comparison is 33 while the tabulated value is 0.05. Concerning the illocutionary forces within the representative speech act there are significant differences realized by the Z score as shown in the following classification:

(a) Assertive:

There is no significant difference between the texts under analysis since the calculated value, 1, is smaller than the tabulated value.

(b) Concluding:

There is no significant difference between the first and the third text since the computed value, 0.25, is smaller than the tabulated value.

(c) Responding:

The computed values conducted in terms of the Z score are significant between the first and second text representing 2.5 and that between the first and the third text is 2 since the tabulated value is 0.05.On the other hand, the comparison between the second and the third text has no significance since the calculated value, 1, is smaller the tabulated value.

(d) Wishing:

A significant difference is realized between the second and the third text is realized as the calculated value is 2.

2. Directive:

The directive speech act and its illocutionary forces varied in their frequencies and percentages in the three selected data. The following is a clarification:

1- Text one consists of 212 utterances out of which 6 utterances are directive representing 3% out of the total;

2- Text two comprises 127 utterances which include 13 utterances making up 10% out of the total;

3- Text three has 307 utterances where 23 instances occur with 7% out of the total.

As a result of the comparison between the first two texts, there is a significant difference since the computed value is 2.8 while the tabulated value is 0.05. The same is with both first and third text where the calculated value is 2.2. In contrast, the comparison between the second and the third text shows no significant difference since the computed value 0.9 is smaller than the tabulated value. Within the directive speech act, the illocutionary forces also vary as a result of the comparison between the selected data. The following is an explanation:

(a) Requesting:

In the light of the comparison between the second and the third text, there is significant difference as the calculated value is 2, while the tabulated value is 0.05.

(b) Ordering:

No significant difference is realized out of the comparison between the second and the third text due to the fact that the computed value is no more than 1, and, hence, smaller than the tabulated value.

(c) Questions:

Through the comparison between the first and second text and that between the first and the third one, there is no significant difference the computed value of each pair is smaller than the tabulated value.

(d) Responding Questions:

In the case of responding questions, the comparison revealed one instance of significance between the first and the second text since the computed value is 2 while the tabulated value is 0.05.

3. Commissives:

The commissive speech act is realized in the following way:

(1)Text one has 212 utterances where only one instance occurs representing 5% out of the total;

(2) Text two includes 127 utterances where 3 instances occur at 3% out of the total.

As a result of the Z score computation, the difference between the first and second text is significant since the calculated value is 2, whereas the comparison between the second and the third text is of no significance as the calculated value 0.18 is smaller than the tabulated value. Similarly is the case with the comparison between the first and the third text. Moreover, there is no significance concerning the illocutionary force of offering as a result of the comparison between the first and second text.

4. Expressive:

The frequencies and percentages in each of the selected texts can be reviewed briefly in the following way:

1- Text one has 212 utterances of an expressive speech act representing 4% out of the total;

2- Text two consists of 127 utterances out of which 10 instances are presented with 8% out of the total;

3- Text three includes 307 utterances where 12 instances making up 4% out of the total.

The result of the Z score computation shows that there is no significant difference between three texts since they all have a calculated value smaller than the tabulated value 0.05. In case of the illocutionary forces within the expressive speech act, there are no significant differences between the texts concerning those of apologizing, thanking, and

greeting. In contrast, there is a significant difference between the second and the third text realized by the illocutionary force of surprise since the computed value is 2 while the tabulated value is 0.05.

TABLE ONE
BREAKDOWN OF SPEECH ACTS AND THEIR ILLOCUTIONARY FORCES

Text One: 212 Utt.s

SA	Representative					Directive					Commissive				Expressive					
IF	Assertive	Concluding	Responding	Wishing	Total	Requesting	Ordering	Question	Responding Questions	Total	Offering	Promising	Threening	Total	Apologizig	Thanking	Congratutg	Greeting	Surprise	Total
Fr.	33	3	13	/	49	1	/	3	2	6	1	/	/	1	/	1	/	2	5	8
Pc.	67%	6%	27%	0%	23%	17%	0%	50%	33%	3%	100%	0%	0%	5%	0%	12.5%	0%	25%	62.5%	4%
Text Two: 127 Utt.s																				
Fr.	22	/	4	1	27	2	2	8	1	13	3	/	/	3	3	3	/	1	1	10
Pc.	81%	0%	15%	4%	21%	15%	15%	62%	8%	10%	100%	0%	0%	2.3%	30%	30%	0%	10%	30%	8%
Text Three: 307 Utt.s																				
Fr.	65	7	19	2	93	9	5	9	/	23	/	8	/	8	2	1	/	/	9	12
Pc.	70%	8%	20%	2%	30%	39%	22%	39%	0%	7.4%	0%	100%	0%	3%	17%	8%	0%	0%	75%	4%

SA → Speech Act / IF. → Illocutionary Force / F. → Frequency / Pc. → Percentage / Utt.s → Utterance

TABLE TWO
BREAKDOWN OF DIRECT & INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

		Direct Speech Acts	Indirect Speech Acts	Total Utterances
Text One	Fr.	99	1	212
	Pc.	47%	0.47%	
Text Two	Fr.	56	1	127
	Pc.	44%	0.78%	
Text Three	Fr.	142	Zero	307
	Pc.	0.46	0%	

B. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

Through the computation of Z score to the direct speech acts, it has been realized that the calculated value of both text one and text two is 0.36, and that of text two and three is 0.38; whereas the value of text one and three is 0.00, and, hence, they are smaller than the tabulated value. Therefore, the results of Z score analysis to the selected data are classified in the following way:

1- Through the analysis of the four speech acts, it has been found to be random in the three selected short stories texts and, hence, the mean of significance which should be at the 0.05 level varied among the texts. In other words, the representative speech act is more significant than the expressive whereas the commissive is of the least significance. In this respect, it is the representative speech act that carries the highest significance in the three texts.

2- Concerning the illocutionary forces of each speech act, a clear variation exists as realized in the following points:

(a) Within the representative speech act, the highest significance is realized by the assertion illocutionary force whereas the least goes to that of whishing;

(b) The illocutionary force of question within the directive speech act carries the highest significance whereas the least is that of a responding question;

(c) For the commissive speech act, the highest significance is realized by the illocutionary force of promising;

(d) Surprise illocutionary force is of the highest frequency whereas that of congratulating has the least significance within the expressive speech act; and

(e) It has been realized that approximately most of the utterances in the short stories are of a direct speech act and this means that they have the highest mean of significance as a result of the Z score mean.

As a result of the analysis, it has been realized that the use of the speech acts fluctuates in both quantity and type from one writer to another and from one theme to another.

TABLE THREE
RESULTS OF THE THREE TEXTS' ANALYSIS

Subjects	Results of Z Score		
SA.S & IF.S	Text One / Text Two	Text Two / Text Three	Text One / Text Three
Representative	0.4	2	33
Assertive	1	1	1
Concluding	0.00	0.00	0.25
Responding	2.5	1	2
Wishing	0.00	2	0.00
Directive	2.8	0.9	2.2
Requesting	1	2	1
Ordering	1	0.00	0.00
Questions	0.5	1	0.2
Responding Questions	0.00	2	0.00
Commissive	2	0.18	1.86
Offering	1	0.00	0.00
Promising	0.00	0.00	0.00
Threatening	0.00	0.00	0.00
Expressive	1.64	1.7	0.11
Appologizing	0.5	0.00	0.00
Thanking	1	1.3	0.5
Greeting	0.5	0.00	0.00
Surprise	1.5	2	0.5
Direct SA.s	0.36	0.38	0.00
Indirect SA.s	0.39	0.00	0.00

IF → Illocutionary Force / SA. → Speech Acts

V. CONCLUSION

In order to become successful communicators, individuals need to understand how different utterance forms can be the vehicles of different communicative intentions. Among the things which a communicator needs to master in order to correctly map an utterance onto its intended interpretation are at least the following: firstly, the linguistic resources required to assign syntactic and semantic structure to the utterance; secondly, an advanced met representational device handling the attribution of mental states; thirdly, a system of social concepts involving status, authority, etc.; finally, a set of higher-order representations specifying how linguistic forms are appropriately used in specific contexts.

It has been concluded that short stories can be analyzed pragmatically similarly to other texts of drama and novel. That the distribution of speech acts is random, there is no significant pattern that embraces the three selected texts. It has also been concluded that the frequency of the illocutionary forces within each speech act is varied from one text to another.

In sum, narrative discourse is amenable to speech act analysis regardless of the different style between novels and short stories.

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Sahar Farouq Altikriti was born in Baghdad / Iraq 1971. She received her BA and MA in English Language and Linguistics from Al-Mustansiriyah University (1992, 1996), whereas PhD degree in English Language and Linguistics was received from University of Baghdad (2006).

Over the past 17 years she has been teaching English as a foreign language to Arab students in University of Baghdad, Al-Mustansiriyah University (Iraq) and in Al-Isra University and University of Jordan (Jordan). Since then, she has been doing research in the field of linguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis and applied linguistics.

Dr. Sahar Altikriti is currently an Assistant Prof. of English Language and Linguistics, Al-Isra University / College of Arts / Dept. of English.

The Effect of E-mailing on Vocabulary Retention of Iranian Lower Intermediate EFL Learners

Mansoor Fahim
Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran, Iran
Email: dr.mfahim@yahoo.com

Khalil Motallebzadeh
Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e-Heidareih Branch, Iran
Email: k.motalleb@iautorbat.ac.ir, kmotallebz@gmail.com

Zeinab Sazegar
Islamic Azad University, Garmsar Branch, Tehran, Iran
Email: zeynab-sa@yahoo.com

Abstract—**Technologies have been enhancing education all the time and new technologies have always been utilized firstly by education, especially with the emergence of computer related information technology (Devedzic, 2000). E-learning provides faster and greater access to information for education (Hamilton et al., 2001). Online training also creates a personalized learning experience and reduces costs. In addition, e-learning is ideal for global corporations with people in multiple time zones, there is no need to coordinate travel and delivery schedules. Electronic mail (e-mail) is an asynchronous medium, which allows participants to control their own timetables and fit learning around their other commitments. The present study aimed to examine the effect of e-mailing on vocabulary retention of Iranian EFL learners. Forty participants were assigned into experimental and control groups. The participants received English words as well as definitions and example sentences either on paper or through e-mail messages in a spaced and scheduled pattern of delivery three times a week throughout 10 sessions. Students' statues in retention of vocabulary were compared at the end of the study. The obtained results showed that the use of e-mail technology can enhance the retention of vocabulary. This study also provides pedagogical implications for utilizing e-mail as an effective and flexible learning tool.**

Index Terms—**e-learning, vocabulary retention, e-mail, EFL**

I. INTRODUCTION

Education has not remained inflexible towards the profound changes taking place in other areas of knowledge. The impact of those changes on the educational area is increasingly evident. New technologies are producing changes in the traditional pedagogical models. They have broadened the array of possibilities for the limited traditional teaching-learning process in which the teacher is the only source of knowledge, the chalk and board are the best didactic aids and the classroom is the only place where this process can be appropriately carried out (Rey & Rosado, 2001, p.12).

Hambrecht and Company (2000) suggest that electronic education is effective because it "offers collaboration and interaction with experts and peers as well as a higher success rate than alternatives" (p.10). Electronic learning provides faster and greater access to information for education (Hamilton et al., 2001, cited in Maynard & Cheyne, 2005). However, consideration should be given to the implications of taking on this e-learning initiative, including financial support, staff workload and changing roles (Wilson, 2003, p.7). Camenson (2007, p.2) also stated that EFL students only spend a few hours per week studying English, have little exposure to English outside the classroom, have little opportunity to practise their newly-acquired language skills, and have a native language background in the classroom. There are only 4 hours per week for the English classes in most Language institutes and schools. Teachers must make difficult choices about how to use that limited time to promote language learning and there is an urgent need for them to find an effective self-study approach for students to enlarge their vocabulary size. ''Because of the class time constraint, vocabulary reinforcement and study is frequently the responsibility of the student outside the classroom'' (Grace, 1998, p.8).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Basics of E-learning

Schank (2002), Roffe (2002), Sambrook (2003) and Tsai & Machado (2002) refer to e-learning as "communication and learning activities through computers and networks (or via electronic means)". To be more specific, Fry (2000) defines e-learning as "delivery of training and education via networked interactivity and a range of other knowledge collection and distribution technologies."Wild, Griggs and Downing (2002) also had the same definition as Fry's – they defined e-learning as the creation and delivery of knowledge via online services in the form of information, communication, education and training. Bleimann (2004) stated that e-learning is a self-directed learning that is based on technology, especially web-based technology. He also stressed that e-learning is collaborative learning.

Internet and web technology is important in e-learning; Horton (2001) defines e-learning as "the use of Internet and digital technologies to create experience that educate fellow human beings." Apart from web-based technology, e-learning seemed to require multimedia based courseware (Evans & Fan, 2002; Lahn, 2004). Therefore, it is clear that e-learning is centered on Information and Communication Technology (ICT). It is not surprising that Hamid (2002) and Lytras, Pouloudi and Poulymenakou (2002) mentioned that e-learning evolved around Information Technology to enhance the learning performance and efficiency. Furthermore, Evans & Hasse (2001) pointed out that technology is indeed needed in e-learning to educate the learner through the usage of two-way video, two-way computer interaction, cable, satellite downlinks and Internet. Honey (2001) provided many good examples of learning activities that involved ICT. These examples include learning from e-mail, online research, online discussion and coaching by e-mail. From these definitions and examples, we can therefore define e-learning as learning activities that involve computers, networks and multimedia technologies.

Research about e-learning as part of a blended approach to learning, which appears to hold significant promise, would be particularly beneficial. "Additional research will allow academicians and practitioners to make better decisions about where e-learning can be applied most effectively, how, and under what circumstances" (Cappel & Hayen, 2004, pp. 55-56).

B.   *Electronic Mail as a Learning Tool*

Electronic mail is communication on internet by personal computer, mobile phone or other tools. Content of e-mail presents through any kinds of form; message, picture, photo or video clip. Electronic mail is a method of exchanging digital messages. E-mail systems are based on a store-and-forward model in which e-mail computer server systems accept, forward, deliver and store messages on behalf of users, who only need to connect to the e-mail infrastructure, typically an e-mail server, with a network-enabled device for the duration of message submission or retrieval. An electronic mail message consists of two components, the message header, and the message body, which is the e-mail's content. The message header contains control information, including, minimally, an originator's email address and one or more recipient addresses (Wikipedia, 2010).

How to use e-mail in the classroom is the focus of the paper by Nagel (1999, p.87) "E-mail in the virtual ESL/EFL Classroom." It deals with more advanced issues connected with the use of e-mail in teaching, and especially with how to be most effective and to get optimal results in the use of e-mail as an instructional tool. This paper tries to achieve these goals by illustrating the difference between e-mail and academic writing, considering how e-mail functions as a learning tool, and whether to use a listserv or not. It also addresses a number of other problems painful for a wired classroom, trying to propose some workable solutions to them.

C.   *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*

Vocabulary is basic to communication and often seen as the greatest source of problems by second language learners. "When students travel, they don't carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries" (Krashen, as cited in Lewis, 1993, p.iii*)). Today's language teachers and researchers have realized the important role of vocabulary in different pedagogical tasks. There is no doubt that virtually all L2 learners and their teachers are well aware of the fact that learning a L2 involves the learning of large numbers of words (Avila& Sadoski, 1996; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001).

Norbert Schmitt (1997, p.18) believed that "In the last 20 or so years, there has been a growing realization that total language proficiency consists of much more than just grammatical competence."In vocabulary teaching, teachers can apply a host of strategies and activities. According to Hatch and Brown (2000, p.401), teaching strategies refer to everything teachers do or should do in order to help their learners learn.

D.   *L2 Vocabulary Acquisition*

One way to study the task of vocabulary learning/acquisition is through the distinction between knowing a word and using a word. In operational terms, knowing a word may be seen as a continuum ranging from blurry recognition of its spelling or auditory pattern to (semantically, syntactically, stylistically) correct and contextually appropriate productive use. Retrieval of a word from the mental lexicon for productive use requires a higher degree of accessibility or, in other words, a more solid integration in various networks than is needed for receptive use (Groot, 2000, p.76). In other words, the purpose of vocabulary learning should include both recalling words and the ability to apply them automatically in a wide range of language contexts when the need arises. Vocabulary learning strategies, therefore, have to incorporate strategies for recognizing and knowing as well as using words. Another way to view vocabulary learning is to take it as a process of interconnected sub-tasks. When learners first encounter a new word, they might guess its meaning and usage from accessible tokens. Some learners might resort to consulting a dictionary. Others might make notes in the

margins, between lines, or in a separate vocabulary notebook. Some learners will take advantage of simple rote repetition to commit the word to memory. Some would even attempt to use the word enthusiastically in a real context. Each of these task stages demands metacognitive decision, choice, and deployment of cognitive strategies for vocabulary learning. (Groot, 2000).Finally, by using vocabulary cards and negotiating vocabulary meaning, learners can become more autonomous and can actively take charge of enlarging their vocabulary. Ultimately, "it is the learners who are responsible for implementing techniques presented by teachers, regularly reviewing target lexis, and monitoring their own learning" (Hunt & Beglar, 2005).

Regarding the aforementioned literature, the researcher is aimed to investigate the effect of e-mailing on vocabulary retention of Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners. The following research question and null hypothesis will be answered in this research:

Research Question: does e-mail have any effect on vocabulary retention of Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners?

Null hypothesis: e-mail does not have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To answer the research question, 40 female lower- intermediate EFL learners, ranging in age from 16 to 23, learning English at Khorasan English Language School, Mashhad, Iran took part in the study. In order to homogenize the participants and to make sure about their level of general proficiency, a Nelson test (version 4,150 C) was administered to the participants. After analyzing the data, participants were selected and randomly assigned into 20 participants experimental and 20 participants control groups.

B. Instrumentation

For the purposes of the present study, three instruments were utilized:

(1) *Nelson Test of Proficiency* was administered to a group of 50 lower-intermediate EFL learners to homogenize the participants based on their language proficiency level. The researcher administered this test at Khorasan English Institute in Mashhad. The reliability index of this test was estimated through Kuder-Richarson formula 21 as 0.82.

(2) As the aim of this study is to examine the effect of e-mailing on vocabulary retention, a pre-test including vocabulary was developed (researcher-made pre-test). The source for making the pre-test was a lower intermediate book entitled 'Thoughts and Notions' (by Ackert & Lee, 2005). This researcher-made test was piloted on the same level participants in another English Language Institute. Having analyzed the data, the result showed that the reliability calculated through Kuder-Richarson formula 21 was 0.87. Then, the item analysis was done and poor items were discarded and some others were modified. The vocabulary test contained 50 items.

(3) Since the time interval between the pre-test and post-test was long enough, the same pre-test was used as post-test too (researcher-made post-test). Based on (Hatch & Farhady, 1982, p.22), we can use a pre-test as post-test, if there is more than two weeks duration between them. The lower-intermediate vocabulary test was conducted again as post-test at the end of the course in order to measure the progress of learner's vocabulary retention.

C. Procedure

At first, a Nelson test as homogenizing tool was administered to 50 lower-intermediate EFL participants. Those participants who were located one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected to participate in this study. Having analyzed the data, 40 participants were chosen for the purpose of this study. They were randomly assigned into experimental and control groups with 20 in each group. In order to select the words that were new and unfamiliar to students, a list of sixty five words were given to both groups before the treatment. Participants were required to recognize the familiar words and write down their Farsi translation. There were fifteen words that students could recognize the meanings. Consequently, fifty unknown words were selected for the purpose of this study. The source for selecting words was the book 'Thoughts and Notions: *Reading and vocabulary development* by Ackert & Lee (2005).

Participants in both experimental and control groups took a pre-test. The researcher explained the project to the participants of the e-mail group, introduced the possible use of e-mail in foreign Language learning, and expressed the hope that the students would choose to participate. The participants of experimental group received step- by- step instructions on using e-mail. The control group didn't receive e-mail training. The teacher created a class e-mail list and sent new vocabulary of each lesson to participants via e-mail. The participants were told that they should make a sentence with new vocabulary as their feedback.

During 10 sessions of treatment, fifty English words followed by definitions and example sentences were given to students. In the experimental group, the researcher sent 5 new vocabularies with definitions and example sentences via e-mail three times a week. Totally, 10 e-mail messages were sent during three weeks. In the control group, the participants were given a list of five words on paper followed by definition and example sentences three times a week. Having finished the treatment (3 weeks, 10 sessions), students in both groups participated for the post-test. The researcher administered the pre-test as post-test to see the effects of the treatment and procedures during the study. After

gaining the scores from the pre-test and post-test, the independent t-test was used to see whether there is a significant difference between means of pre-test and post-test of either groups or not.

D. Data Analysis

To answer the research question, version 16 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and reliability indices for the pre-test, post-test and Nelson test.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Variance	Skewness			Kurtosis			K-R21
				statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	
PRETETS	40	15.75	19.628	.455	.374	1.21	-.665	.733	-.911	.87
POSTTTS	40	34.92	52.533	-.011	.374	.029	.043	.733	.058	.81
NELSON	40	37.1250	24.856	.177	.374	.473	-.707	.733	.964	.82

Perhaps the most important statistics are those for the skewness and kurtosis. In order to have an almost normal distribution the ratio of the skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors are within the range of plus and minus 2.

As indicated in this table, mean score of homogenized test is (37.12).To examine the effects of e-mailing on vocabulary retention, a test of English proficiency including a subtest of vocabulary was developed. To obtain the desired results, reliability of pre-test and post-test were calculated. In this section the reliability of pre-test and post-test were calculated by Kuder-Richardson formula 21. The result is indicated in table 1. The result shows that Kuder-Richardson formula 21 for post-test is .81 and it can be acceptable. Since this index is large enough and it is near to one (bigger than practically accepted measure 0.65), we can conclude that post- test is reliable. According to table 1, reliability of pre-test is .87.

T-test was conducted for experimental and control groups before the treatment to show the homogeneity of the two groups .An independent t-test is run to compare the means scores of the experimental and control groups on the pre-test of vocabulary. The t-observed value (.42) at 38 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical t-value, (2.02), therefore the difference between two means of groups obtained from pre-test is not statistically meaningfully, indicating the fact that two groups were similar before the start of the experiment.Table 2 provides the statistics for this analysis.

TABLE2:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRE-TEST OF VOCABULARY BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.848	.363	.424	38	.674	.600	1.416	-2.267	3.467
Equal variances not assumed			.424	36.759	.674	.600	1.416	-2.270	3.470

T-test was conducted for experimental and control groups before the treatment to show the homogeneity of two groups. Furthermore, the T-test for equality of means shows that significant value is .674 which is > 0.05. That means there is no significant difference between the groups at the beginning of treatment and they are homogenized. In testing hypothesis, if significant level (α) is smaller than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected which indicates a significant difference between mean scores of the two groups; on the contrary, if $\alpha \geq 0.05$, the null hypothesis is accepted that is , there is no significant difference between them.

It should be noted that the two groups are homogenous in terms of their variances on the pre-test.The Levene's test of homogeneity of variances F = .84 has a probability of .36. The probability associated with the Levene's F is much higher than the significance level (.05).That is why the first row of Table 2, "Equal variances not assumed" is reported.

Consequently, it can be claimed that the participants of the study were homogenous in their vocabulary knowledge prior to the beginning of the study. Therefore, the participants in both groups had similar status in case of vocabulary knowledge. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRE-TEST OF VOCABULARY BY GROUPS

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXPERIMENTAL	20	16.05	4.045	.905
CONTROL	20	15.45	4.872	1.089

As shown in table 3, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups are 16.05 and 15.45 respectively.

A t-test analysis performed on the means of the post-test confirmed that observed t-value of (2.81) exceeded its critical value (2.02) at 0.05 level of significance; therefore, it can be claimed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups mean scores on the post-test of vocabulary after the administration of the e-mail treatment to the former group (Table4).

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST POST-TEST OF VOCABULARY BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.067	.797	2.817	38	.008	5.950	2.112	1.675	10.225
Equal variances not assumed			2.817	37.954	.008	5.950	2.112	1.675	10.225

It should be noted that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances on the post-test. The Levene's test of homogeneity of variances F =.06 has a probability of .79 (Table 4) which is much higher than the significance level 0.05.So it is claimed that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their variances. Thus it can be concluded that the null-hypothesis mentioning that "e-mail does not have any significant effect on the retention of vocabulary items" is rejected. The experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test of vocabulary.

Consequently it is claimed that the treatment the students had in the experimental group was the cause of this significant change in the retention of vocabulary. The use of e-mail technology can enhance the retention of vocabulary among lower-intermediate Iranian learners of English. The descriptive statistics for the two groups are displayed in Table 5. The mean scores after 10 sessions of treatment for the experimental group and control group were 37.90 and 31.95 respectively. Seemingly, there is a significant difference between mean scores of the two groups. Also, the descriptive statistics show that the obtained standard deviations for the experimental and control groups are 6.56 and 6.79 respectively.

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POST-TEST OF VOCABULARY BY GROUPS

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXPERIMENTAL	20	37.90	6.561	1.467
CONTROL	20	31.95	6.794	1.519

The mean scores of the pre-test in experimental group and control group were (16.05) and (15.45), respectively as shown in Table 3. The mean score of post-test in experimental group and control group were (37.90), and (31.95). The t-value of (2.817) exceeded its critical value, it can be asserted that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups mean scores on the post-test of vocabulary retention. These results reveal that e-mailing had a significant effect on vocabulary retention of Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners.

IV. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the impact of e-mailing on vocabulary retention. Results indicated that the treatment the students had in the experimental group was the cause of this significant change in the retention of vocabulary. The use of e-mail technology can enhance the retention of vocabulary among lower-intermediate Iranian learners of English. The results of this study may have some hints for English teachers and Educators.EFL teachers can focus learners' attention on the use of e-mail in education. They should pay attention that e-mail can be utilized as a tool in learning vocabulary. According to the results of this study, e-mail has a positive effect on vocabulary retention. As many researchers have noted, e-mail extends what one can do in the classroom, since it provides a venue for meeting and communicating in the foreign language outside of class. Integrating the Internet in the EFL curriculum seems a logical choice, since it offers many benefits to EFL instruction itself (Rey, & Rosado, 2001). Research in this area has pointed out many other reasons to justify the implementation of Internet based projects. There are some practical aspects that also motivate students to use e-mail. It is recommended that technology be integrated into instruction (Leh, 1999).

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Mansoor Fahim was born in Iran in 1946. He received a Ph.D. in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) from Islamic Azad University in Tehran, Iran in 1994, an M.A. in General Linguistics from Tehran University in Tehran, Iran in 1978, and a B.A. in English Translation from Allameh Tabataba˝i University in Tehran, Iran in 1975.

As for his professional background, he was the chairman of the EFL department at Allameh Tabataba˝i University from 2003 to 2007 and a member of the faculty of English Language and Literature at Allameh Tabataba˝i University in Tehran, Iran from 1979 to 2008 when he was retired as an associate professor of TEFL. He has also taught English at a welter of universities and language schools. At present, he runs Psycholinguistics, Applied Linguistics, First and Second Language Acquisition, and Discourse Analysis courses at M.A. and Ph.D. levels at a number of universities in Iran, including Allameh Tabataba˝i and Islamic Azad Universities. Moreover, he has several published articles and books mostly in the field of TEFL including: (1) Fahim, M. & Nezakatgoo, B. (2006). GRE general words for graduate and post-graduate students. Tehran: Rahnama Publications. (2) Ghobadi, A. & Fahim, M. (2009). The effect of explicit teaching of English „thanking formulas‟ on Iranian EFL intermediate level students at English language

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Dr. Mansoor Fahim is currently a member of the editorial board of the Iranian journal of Applied Linguistic Studies, Sistan & Baloochestan University, Iran; Journal of Language Studies, Shahrekord University, Iran; and Journal of English Language Studies, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran.

Khalil Motallebzadeh is assistant professor at the Islamic Azad University (IAU) of Torbat-e-Heidarieh and Branch, Iran. He is a widely published established researcher in language testing and e-learning. He has been a visiting scholar at the University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign (UIUC) in 2007-2008. He is also an accredited teacher trainer of the British Council since 2008 and is currently the Iran representative of Asia TEFL.

Zeinab Sazegar received her MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Garmsar Branch, Iran in 2011. She is interested in e-learning and teaching methodology.

Function of English Sub-tests of the INUEE for Male Candidates

Maryam Javadizad
Department of English, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Najafabad, Iran
Email: maryam_javadizad@yahoo.com

Hossein Barati
English Department, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: h.barati@gmail.com

Akbar Hesabi
English Department, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: a.hesabi11@yahoo.com

Abstract—**Iranian National University Entrance Exam (INUEE) plays a vital role in the life of Iranian students in terms of screening applicants for higher education. The present study aimed to investigate if there is any highly positive correlation between various English sub-tests of the INUEE for male candidates. The study utilized Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient formula to investigate correlation coefficient for a sample of 329 students randomly selected out of a population of 90858 male candidates who sat for the INUEE. The results of the study identified a high correlation between grammar and reading comprehension, vocabulary and reading comprehension, vocabulary and grammar, and language functions and reading comprehension sub-tests for male students.**

Index Terms—**correction for attenuation, correlation coefficient, Iranian National University Entrance Exam (INUEE), high-stakes test**

I. INTRODUCTION

Testing in general and language testing in particular is a challenging field. In other words, tests are used to make decisions which influence people's lives. Therefore, they must provide as accurate information as possible to enable test-makers to make fair decisions. This is something which makes testing a very complicated task (Safikhani, 2009). The INUEE in Iran which is specific for language courses is a public test which is administered annually and has a great number of stake holders. As Pearson (1988) notes, public examinations influence the attitudes, behavior, and motivation of teachers and learners. In this respect various studies indicate a range of rather negative feelings which stems from the test. Spratt (2005) claims that students show mixed feelings toward a high-stakes test. Such a test made them work hard but it was not an accurate indicator of their study and so did not relate specifically to their future needs. One of the variables that affect on test results is the relationship between various sub-tests in a test.

According to Adams (1980, cited in Lin, 2002), "syntactic competence is an important dimension of linguistic competence in general". Similarly, Berman (1948, cited in Lin, 2002) notes that "efficient foreign language readers must rely in part on syntactic devices to get at text meaning". In proposing a focus on grammatical patterns, Hunston (1997) emphasize that the connection of word and pattern is not random and the groups of words in patterns tend to share aspects of meaning.

Rivers (1983) conveyed that for successful second language use the acquisition of adequate vocabulary is necessary because without an extensive vocabulary the language learner will not be able to use the structures and functions of the second language he/she may have learned for comprehensible communication. Laufer & Hulstijn (2001) also pointed out that many second language learners are hampered in reading comprehension and other language skills just because of a simple lack of word knowledge.

Such studies are especially important in high-stakes test contexts. This was the motive for the present study which intends to check the relationship between different sub-tests in a high-stakes test (Iranian National University Entrance Exam) administered annually in Iran.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Alderson (1993) proved a strong connection between grammar and reading comprehension. In Alderson's study, the researcher tried to investigate whether there is any correlation between different parts of IELTS test. During the study, he found a very high correlation between the grammar test and different tests of reading comprehension. For example,

the correlation between the grammar test and the Science and Technology Reading test was .80 (r = .80). However, studies in this area are problematic. Alderson (1993) observed that "the results, then, appear to show that a (vaguely defined) generalized grammatical ability is an important component in reading in a foreign language" (p. 218). But, as he himself admits, he was unable to avoid a degree of "contamination" of the grammar variable, since his grammar measure involved the processing of sentence semantics, e.g. the referential and sense meanings of lexical items. Since reading involves the extraction and reconstruction of meaning (including the processing of appropriate forms in meaningful contexts), it is clear that any grammar test with a heavy emphasis on meaning is likely to overlap with reading tests.

Also, a number of empirical studies investigated the roles of different aspects of L_2 vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Koda's (1989) study of 24 college students who were learning Japanese as a foreign language found equally strong correlations between a self-made vocabulary test and two reading tests, one being a cloze test and the other paragraph comprehension. Koda (1989) reported a correlation of .69 (r = .69) between the learners' scores on the vocabulary test and the cloze test and a correlation of .74 (r = .74) between their scores on the vocabulary test and the paragraph comprehension test.

Iranian National University Entrance Exam (INUEE) in Iran, as a high-stakes selection test, might be influential on the high school and pre-university teachers and students. In this regard, the present study seeks to explore the appropriateness of the specialized English section of the INUEE in measuring different abilities of male students in EFL.

Based on what has been discussed the following question was raised:

• Is there any relationship in the performance of Iranian male test takers on the various sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE?

According to the question mentioned above the study attempted to address the following null research hypothesis:

• There is no correlation coefficient between different sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE for male candidates.

III. METHOD

A. Subjects

The participants of this study were selected randomly from a population of about 276,164 high school graduates of Natural Sciences, Humanities, and Mathematics who sat for the specialized English section of the INUEE (90,858 male and 185,306 female). At first the population was divided based on their gender. The final participants were selected randomly from male group. A total sample of 329 test-takers was selected randomly for the present investigation. The assumption was that a large sample may help finding out statistically significant results where the effect is seemingly small and meaningless.

B. Materials

"Iranian National University Entrance Exam" (INUEE)

The Iranian National University Entrance Exam evaluates students' general language ability to select them for studying at higher education (Appendix I). This test has five similar forms. High school graduates sit for one of the three main forms which are related to Natural Sciences, Humanities, or Mathematics. The other two forms of the test are related to Arts and English. The test-takers if interested can take two forms of the test, one related to English or art and the other related to Natural Sciences, Humanities, or Mathematics. The test which is prepared to select students for the English major has two parts. The second part which is specially designed to screen candidates for studying English as a foreign language (EFL) consists of 70 multiple-choice items in six areas of grammar (12 items), vocabulary (20 items), language structure (word order) (4 items), language functions (4 items), cloze test (15 items), and reading comprehension (15 items).

C. Data Analysis

The data for this study are the collected results from Sanjesh Organization of the INUEE administered in 2004. The answer sheets of all the applicants for the English major (more than 90,000 male applicants) were considered in this study and 329 answer sheets were selected randomly from various groups.

To do the investigation, the scores of the participants for each sub-test were needed. Thus participants received +1 for each correct response, -1/3 for each wrong answer, and 0 for the questions which left unanswered. This is the procedure implemented by Sanjesh Organization. This procedure was done separately for each sub-test for male candidates.

The correlations between different sub-tests for male group were calculated. It includes six sub-tests. So the researcher had 15 correlations for males. To do this, the SPSS software was used.

According to Henning (1987) "when we compute a correlation matrix from a battery of sub-tests, we should bear in mind that the magnitudes of these correlation coefficients is affected by the reliabilities of the sub-tests." (p.85). To solve this problem the correction for attenuation formula was used; so the reliability of each sub-test was calculated separately by the use of Cronbach's alpha. The reliability estimates for each of the six parts of the test as well as the whole test are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
RELIABILITY ESTIMATED FOR THE SPECIALIZED ENGLISH TEST (TOTAL TEST AND SUB-TESTS)

	Grammar	Vocabulary	Language structure (word order)	Language functions	Cloze Test	Reading Comprehension	Total Test
Reliability	.55	.59	.54	.53	.61	.64	.89

IV. RESULTS

As discussed earlier the research question concerns the existence of correlation coefficient between different sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE. In order to address the research question Pearson Product Moment correlation was applied on the data. This would help find out whether there is any relationship in the performance of Iranian male test-takers on the various sub-tests or not.

A. Correlation between Grammar and Vocabulary Sub-tests

This section depicts the results of correlational analysis between grammar and vocabulary sub-tests. At first, test given to the participants was scored. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient analysis was carried out on the results after scoring the test. The result of the analysis is presented in Figure 1 and in Table 2.
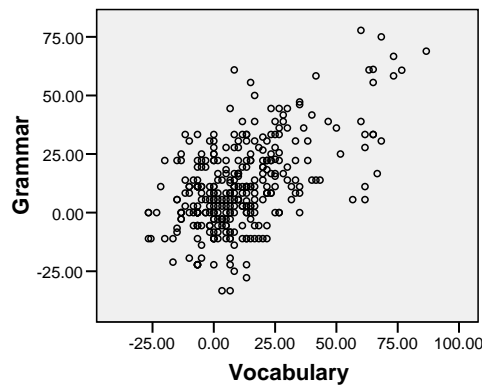

Figure 1: Scatter Diagram for the Grammar and Vocabulary Sub-tests

TABLE 2:
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY SUB-TESTS

Correlations

		Grammar	Vocabulary
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.500**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.500**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in table 2 the correlation coefficient between the scores of the grammar and vocabulary sub-tests is .50; however, after using the correction for attenuation formula it changed to .89. According to Yamini & Rahimi (2007) the correlation coefficient is used to determine the degree of relationship between two variables. If the variables are related, there is some common variance between them. To calculate the common variance, the correlation coefficient is squared. So the common variance of two sub-tests is 79%.

B. Correlation between Grammar and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests

As for the correlation between grammar and vocabulary sub-tests of the INUEE, Pearson Product Moment correlational analysis was carried out on the results of grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests after scoring the test. Table 3 and Figure 2 present the results.
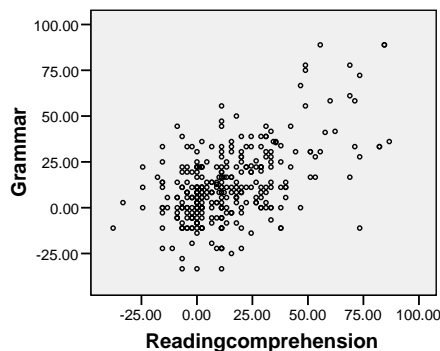
Figure 2*: Scatter Diagram for the Grammar and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests*

TABLE 3:
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN GRAMMAR AND READING COMPREHENSION SUB-TESTS

Correlations

		Grammar	Readingcom prehension
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.536**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Readingcomprehension	Pearson Correlation	.536**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As demonstrated above, the correlation coefficient between the scores of the grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests is .53 which changed to .89 after using the correction for attenuation formula. The common variance for the two was, therefore .79 which indicates 79% of the variance caused by the two tests is due to their same function.

C. Correlation between Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests

To find out the correlation coefficient between vocabulary and reading comprehension sub-tests of the INUEE, Pearson Product Moment correlation was employed on the data. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 4 and Figure 3.
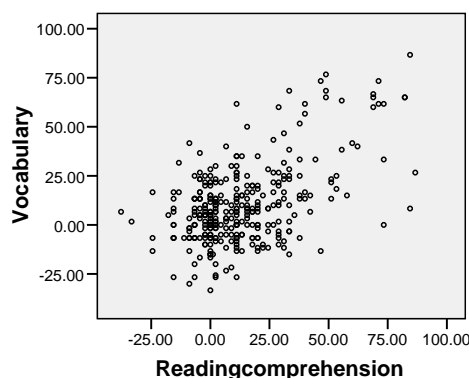

Figure 3: Scatter Diagram for the Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests

TABLE 4:
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION SUB-TESTS

Correlations

		Vocabulary	Readingcom prehension
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	1	.536**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Readingcomprehension	Pearson Correlation	.536**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As demonstrated in table 4 the correlation coefficient between the scores of the vocabulary and reading comprehension sub-tests is .53, but after using the correction for attenuation formula it changed to .86. So accordingly the common variance of two sub-tests is 73%.

D. Correlation between Language Functions and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests

This section depicts the results of correlational analysis between the language functions and reading comprehension sub-tests of the INUEE. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient analysis was carried out on the data. Figure 4 and Table 5 present the results.
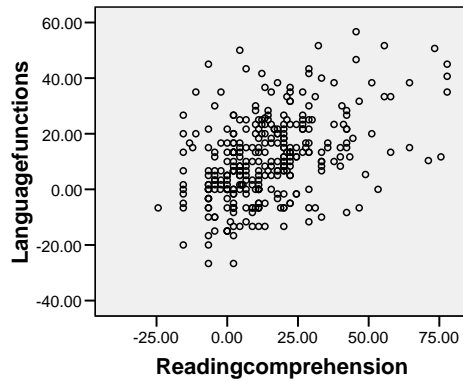

Figure 4: Scatter Diagram for the Language Functions and Reading Comprehension Sub-tests

TABLE 5:
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS AND READING COMPREHENSION SUB-TESTS

Correlations

		Languagef unctions	Readingcom prehension
Languagefunctions	Pearson Correlation	1	.520**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Readingcomprehension	Pearson Correlation	.520**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As demonstrated in Table 5, the correlation coefficient between the scores of the language functions and reading comprehension sub-tests is .52 which changed to .89 after using the correction for attenuation formula. According to these results the common variance of two sub-tests is 79%.

E. Correlation Coefficient between Other Sub-tests

The results of Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient between other sub-tests of the INUEE for male candidates are mentioned in Table 6. Indeed, the correlation coefficients between these sub-tests are insufficient and are not important. The tables of correlation coefficient for these sub-tests are presented in Appendix II.

TABLE 6:
RESULTS OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN OTHER SUB-TESTS OF THE SPECIALIZED ENGLISH SECTION OF THE INUEE

	Before using the correction for attenuation formula	After using the correction for attenuation formula		Before using the correction for attenuation formula	After using the correction for attenuation formula
Grammar & Language Structure	.29	.53	Grammar & Language Functions	.28	.52
Grammar & Cloze Test	.33	.57	Vocabulary & Language Structure	.26	.46
Vocabulary & Language Functions	.31	.56	Vocabulary & Cloze Test	.35	.59
Language Structure & Language Functions	.27	.50	Language Structure & Cloze Test	.24	.42
Language Structure & Reading Comprehension	.26	.44	Language Functions & Cloze Test	.36	.65
Cloze Test & Reading Comprehension	.41	.66			

In this study one null research hypothesis is addressed. It claimed that there is no correlation coefficient between different sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE for male candidates. According to the results there is a high correlation between grammar and vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension, vocabulary and reading comprehension, and language functions and reading comprehension sub-tests. It shows that we can use just reading comprehension sub-test to measure candidates' knowledge in grammar, vocabulary, language functions, and reading comprehension. So, the research hypothesis in this study is rejected.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The previous sections presented and discussed the results of correlation coefficient analyses for the English sub-tests of the INUEE administered in 1383. In this part the findings are interpreted in light of the research questions.

The research hypothesis of this study is that "there is no correlation coefficient between different sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE for males". On the basis of the statistical analyses of the data obtained from the INUEE given to the participants, there is a high correlation between grammar and vocabulary (r = .89), grammar and reading comprehension (r = .89), language functions and reading comprehension (r = .89), and vocabulary and reading comprehension (r = .86); so this null hypothesis is rejected. This finding is in line with previous researches such as the study by Irvin (2001) who believed that vocabulary knowledge is an important part of reading comprehension. Besides, the National Reading Panel (Panel, 2000) stated that reading comprehension is a cognitive process that integrates complex skills and cannot been understood without examining the critical role of vocabulary learning in its development. In addition, Gestern & Geva (2003) believed that students' vocabulary knowledge, i.e. the words they know, and students' reading comprehension of what they read are strongly correlated.

Many researchers (e.g., Alderson, 1984; Eskey, 1973) also attributed the incapacity for communicative competence in English to a poverty of vocabulary. This idea was expressed best by Savington (1997) who considered the insufficiency of vocabulary as an important factor and argues that: "this is a factual problem in speech, reading and writing. Grammar skill does not work effectively unless you have the vocabulary to express yourself" (P.78).

Moreover, Gestern & Baker (1999) presented a research synthesis of studies conducted between 1979 and 1999 involving learning disable students and concluded that successful reading comprehension is correlated with oral reading fluency and vocabulary knowledge. In addition, based on a study of 8th grade students, who were assessed using word recognition checklist and multiple choice vocabulary tasks, Anderson & Freebody (1981) maintained, "a readers' general vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of how well that reader can understand a text" (P.3). The authors reported a high correlation between tests of vocabulary and reading comprehension tests.

In other studies like Berman (1984), and later in Urquhart & Weir (1998), the researchers note: "Grammar is a component of reading that has been almost ignored in the research. It seems to us that this is an interesting and potentially valuable research area which L2 teachers and applied linguists are in a good position to investigate." (p.269).

As indicated all these researches have shown the crucial role of vocabulary knowledge and grammatical knowledge in reading comprehension which is completely in line with the results of this study.

This study has examined the relationship between different sub-tests in the specialized English section of the INUEE and their functions for both male and female test-takers. In fact, the study contributes to the literature on correlational studies since there have been no studies concerning the effect of gender on correlation coefficient among different sub-tests of the specialized English section of the INUEE. The study is significant in the sense that it has considered the effect of gender across the different subject areas and therefore has led to a set of interesting ideas.

Furthermore, as there have been very few studies checking for the reliability and validity of the specialized English section of the INUEE, especially with regard to test bias and correlation among different sub-tests, attempts can be made to include subject areas which are less permeable to bias.

APPENDIX I ENGLISH TEST 1383

Part A: Grammar
Directions: Questions 101-110 are incomplete sentences. Beneath each sentence you will see four words or phrases, marked (1), (2), (3), and (4). Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentences. Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.
101. He has been feeling badly since he …….. his job.
    1) lost   2) loses   3) had lost   4) will lost
102. she doesn't know …….. causes her not do well on tests.
    1) how   2) whom   3) what   4) why
103. The new pens require …….. than ordinary pens do.
    1) the thicker ink   2) a thicker ink   3) the ink is thicker   4) an ink and thicker
104. It is good form to use the name of the person ………
    1) who are greeting   2) whom you are greeting 3) which you are greeting   4) that you are greeting him
105. Students who fail …….. another chance to take the exam next June.
    1) giving   2) will give   3) to give   4) will be give

106. At last month's meeting the president asked the farmers if they …….. more trees immediately.
    1) planted   2) would plant   3) will plant   4) have planted
107. Pineapples are not commercially produced in north America, ………
    1) and are coconuts either   2) and not coconuts either 3) and neither are coconuts   4) and neither coconuts nor
108. There was …….. evidence against John, so he was not accused of murder.
    1) little   2) a little   3) few   4) a few
109. I don't mind …….. a cat in the house only if it is clean and it doesn't smell.
    1) having   2) have   3) to have   4) that I have
110. I'm not responsible …….. what my brother does.
    1) of   2) for   3) about   4) with
111. New chemicals are not always tested to determine if …….. will cause health problems.
    1) it   2) those   3) they   4) that
112. Because it was so closely related to communication, …….. art form to develop.
    1) the earliest draw 2) early drawing probably 3) to draw early was probably4) drawing was probably the earliest

Part B: Vocabulary

Directions: Questions 111-130 are incomplete sentences. Beneath each sentence you will see four words or phrases, marked (1), (2), (3), and (4). Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentences. Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.

113. He …….. the children by himself; his wife died years ago.
    1) existed   2) raised   3) accepted   4) behaved
114. The meeting was supposed to be for today but was delayed at the …….. of the members.
    1) existed   2) advice   3) struggle   4) choice
115. I think it is …….. to keep animals in zoos.
    1) serious   2) cruel   3) financial   4) emotional
116. Don't worry. There is …….. food for everybody.
    1) fashionable   2) separate   3) available   4) sufficient
117. He has maybe one hundred books in his library covering every …….. of Iranian history.
    1) aspect   2) memory   3) instance   4) resource
118. I applied for a …….. to study psychology at Oxford.
    1) skill   2) reward   3) scholarship   4) competition
119. His smile was …….. of his approval of our plan.
    1) productive   2) corrective   3) decisive   4) suggestive
120. You …….. her by saying that she looked ugly in that new dress.
    1) offended   2) wondered   3) avoided   4) confined
121. Two of missing people have been found dead, but the third one has not yet been ………
    1) set up   2) stuck in   3) accounted for   4) brought about
122. Nothing can …….. your being late for your sister's wedding.
    1) interfere   2) justify   3) impose   4) affect
123. They talked about the …….. of the money supply, so that people could not spend so much.
    1) procedure   2) restriction   3) capacity   4) pressure
124. The injured man was carried into the clinic on a ………
    1) platform   2) device   3) shelter   4) stretcher
125. Nuclear energy seems to be a good …….. for fossil fuels.
    1) replacement   2) calculation   3) equipment   4) application
126. Her …….. way of dressing makes her stand out wherever she goes.
    1) various   2) inevitable   3) distinctive   4) severe
127. Mr. president will …….. the conference before the participants officially begin to work.
    1) address   2) preach   3) announce   4) approach
128. The blame for the accident lies …….. with carelessness on the part of both drivers.
    1) solely   2) mentally   3) closely   4) properly
129. The United Nations is supplying as much emergency aid to …….. as it can.
    1) enemies   2) spectators   3) customers   4) refugees
130. She managed to …….. all her difficulties by working hard.
    1) disperse   2) maintain   3) overcome   4) suffer
131. The …….. of men to women in the population has changed so that there are now fewer men and more women.
    1) limitation   2) condition   3) registration   4) proportion
132. If you see a new word, you have to …….. the meaning of it in a dictionary.
    1) make up   2) look up   3) turn up   4) call out

Part C: Word Order

Directions: choose the sentence with the best order for each of the following series. Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.

133. 1) The red one looks on you does better than the striped one.
    2) The red one looks better than the striped one does on you.
    3) The red one looks better than on you the striped one does.
    4) The red one looks better on you than the striped one does.

134. 1) Swimming is a sport I would recommend to any healthy person.
    2) Swimming is to any healthy person a sport I would recommend.
    3) Swimming is a sport to any healthy person I would recommend.
    4) Swimming I would recommend is to any healthy person a sport.

135. 1) Anyone who uses without the owner's permission the trademark will be prosecuted.
    2) Anyone who uses the trademark without the owner's permission will be prosecuted.
    3) Anyone will be prosecuted who without the owner's permission uses the trademark.
    4) Any will be prosecuted who uses the trademark without the owner's permission.

136. 1) Traveling at sixty miles an hour, the bus just missed the lamp-post and ran into the shop window.
    2) The bus just missed the lamp-post traveling at sixty miles an hour and ran into the shop window.
    3) The bus just missed the lamp-post and ran into the shop windows traveling at sixty miles an hour.
    4) Traveling at sixty miles an hour, the lamp-post just missed and the bus ran into the shop window.

Part D: Language Functions

Directions: Read the following conversations between two people and answer the questions about the conversations by choosing one of the choices (1), (2), (3), or (4). Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.

Man: Want to go out and get something to eat?

Woman: I can't have a chemistry midterm on Monday and a German exam on Tuesday.

Man: I have a geology exam Monday myself, but I think I'm ready for it.

Woman: What kind of exam is it going multiple choice or essay?

Man: Neither. The professor is going to give us a mineral sample and we have to identify it.

Woman: How do you that? I mean. A rock's a rock. Isn't it?

Man: Actually, there are a lot of tests you can perform on minerals to help you figure out what they are. Probably the first tests I'll do are scratch tests. When you do a scratch test, you rub the sample on a known mineral to see if the unknown mineral scratches the known mineral or vice versa. That tells you the relative hardness of the sample.

Woman: What other tests will you do?

Man: I'll probably do a streak test next. In that test, you rub an unknown mineral against a piece of unglazed porcelain to see what color the streak is.

Woman: Why can't you just look at the mineral to see what color it is?

Man: Well, you can, but sometimes a mineral has a lot of impurities, and they can change its color but a streak test shows the minerals true color. Then there's always the specific gravity test, the blowpipe test, … oh, and the ultraviolet test, and ….

Woman: And after you've done all these tests, you can positively identify any mineral?

Man: Well, usually … but not always. I just hope I can on Monday!

137. What does the man ask the woman to do?
    1) stay at home   2) go to a restaurant   3) go on a field trip   4) study for a language exam

138. What type of exam is the man taking on Monday?
    1) an essay exam   2) a geology exam   3) a chemistry exam   4) a multiple-choice exam

139. What does a streak test show about a mineral?
    1) its true color   2) its relative purity   3) its relative hardness   4) its chemical composition

140. What does the man imply about the test used to identify mineral?
    1) they are never effective   2) they are simple to perform
    3) they are not always conclusive   4) they are usually undependable

Part E: Cloze Test

Directions: Read the following passage and decide which choice (1), (2), (3), or (4) best fits each space. Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.

For the first century or so of the industrial revolution, increased productivity led to decreases in working hour employees who had been putting in 12-hour days, six days (41) …….. week, found their time on the (42) …….. shrinking to 10 hours daily, then (43) …….. to eight hours, five days a (44) ……… only a generation ago social planners (45) …….. about what people would do with (46) …….. this new-found free time. Although the (47) …….. per hour of work has more (48) …….. doubled since 1945, leisure seems reserved (49) …….. for the unemployed and underemployed. Those (50) …….. work fulltime spend as much time (51) …….. the job as they did at (52) …….. end of world war II. In (53) ……., working hours have increased noticeably since 1970- (54) …….. because real wages have stagnated since (55) …….. year. Book stores now abound with manuals describing how to manage time and cope with stress.

141. 1) a   2) in   3) the   4) of
142. 1) task   2) work   3) job   4) profession
143. 1) next   2) absolutely   3) thus   4) finally
144. 1) month   2) year   3) week   4) day
145. 1) proposed   2) guessed   3) worried   4) informed
146. 1) all   2) complete   3) entire   4) whole
147. 1) reason   2) attempt   3) shortage   4) out put
148. 1) of   2) so   3) as   4) than
149. 1) terribly   2) sharply   3) largely   4) lastly
150. 1) who   2) which   3) whose   4) they
151. 1) for   2) in   3) on   4) with
152. 1) an   2) the   3) one   4) first
153. 1) fact   2) action   3) actively   4) respect
154. 1) properly   2) except   3) lately   4) perhaps
155. 1) a   2) the   3) that   4) per

Part F: Reading Comprehension

Directions: In this part of the test, you will read three passages. Each passage is followed by a number of questions. Answer the questions by choosing the best choice (1), (2), (3), or (4). Then mark the correct choice on your answer sheet.

Questions 156-160

Scientific research on tooth decay has recently produced some surprising findings. One shows that cheddar cheese may actually prevent the tooth-decay process. It seems to have decay-slowing effect on human teeth if it is eaten immediately after sugar. Why cheese should have such an effect is unknown. It is speculated that the food might interfere with the acid that decay teeth or with bacteria that produce the acid. If so, it would be the first common food found to have this useful property. The other surprising research finding was that heavily sweetened cereals proved about equally effective in causing decay whether <u>they</u> contained eight percent sugar or almost eight times that much.

156. The number of the findings referred to in this passage are ………
    1) one   2) two   3) three   4) eight
157. Cheddar cheese seems to ………
    1) make sugar state sweeter   2) help in the digestion of food
    3) interfere with the function of teeth   4) decrease the rate at which teeth decay
158. The word "they" in line 7 refers to ………
    1) people   2) teeth   3) cereal   4) types of sugar
159. It can be inferred from the passage that the research on the relationship between cheese and tooth decay ………
    1) will be continued   2) has not been accepted   3) will be slowed considerably   4) has been found to be perfect
160. Researchers discovered that sweetened cereals were ………
    1) all equally harmful to teeth   2) more expensive than cheese
    3) all surprisingly heavy in sugar   4) important for their food value

Question 161-165

Few can predict a winner in the popular _Tour de France,_ the annual twenty-four-day bike race over twenty-five hundred miles of French countryside. Anything can happen, and usually does, in this grueling cycle race which has been called the world's roughest road race. Accidents and exhaustion may force more than half the contestants to drop out before reaching the finish line.

A cyclist can stay in pack, finish respectably, and still suffer rough physical punishment, but the real dangers of the race become apparent when he decides to win. Cycling down a windswept mountain road, a racer may hit sixty miles an hour- with no hope of stopping; if he loses control then, he's out of the race in a split second, slamming over a cliff or into a rocky ditch. But the reward for the skillful and lucky winner is substantial – it's possible for him to earn as much as a hundred thousand dollars a year.

Hundreds of spectators follow the _Tour de France_ in cars. And cheering crowds line the streets of every small town and village along the route. The _Tour de France_ is a midsummer madness for which the United States has no counterpart, either in danger or in national appeal.

161. It is a fact that the _Tour de France_ is ………
    1) an auto endurance race   2) an annual cycle race
    3) the world's most popular race   4) the world's roughest road race
162. More than half the racers may drop out because of ………
    1) mechanical trouble   2) disqualifying cycle race   3) accidents and exhaustion   4) not wanting to try to win
163. Every racer can expect to receive ………
    1) a fast bicycle   2) a physical punishment   3) a serious injury   4) a substantial award
164. The real dangers of the race become apparent as soon as ………
    1) one accident occurs   2) the racers become tried   3) a racer decides to win   4) the pack nears the finish line

165. The selection states that to win, it is most essential that a cyclist ………
    1) be lucky and skillful   2) stay in the pack as long as possible
    3) have previous experience on the course   4) have greater endurance than all the others

Questions 166-170

Edgar Allan Poe is today considered as one of the great authors of horror stories, but he received very little recognition and almost no money for his stories while he lived. Twenty-five of his greatest stories were published in a collection called *Tales of the grotesque and Arabesque,* which appeared in 1840, but at the time little notice was taken of it. Three years later, another story, "The Gold Bug," was published, selling 300,000 copies, and by 1845 he had written twelve more stories, which he published in *Tales.* His best-known stories include "The Pit and the Pendulum" and "The Tell-Tale Heart," but it was a poem, "The Raven," that brought him his greatest recognition as a writer.

The centerpiece of a collection of thirty poems published in a volume titled *The Raven and Other Poems,* it became quite popular. The topic of the poem is grief over the loss of an ideal love. The dramatic, almost theatrical tone, the intensity of the repetition, and the hypnotic rhythm reflect the narrator's despondent and desperate state of mind. When read aloud, it produces a powerful effect.

166. The author's main purpose in this passage is ……….
    1) to give examples of horror stories   2) to compare Poe's stories with his poems
    3) to mention the work of Edgar Allan Poe   4) to indicate that *The Raven* be read aloud
167. According to the passage, the story that sold 300,000 copies was ………
    1) *The Raven*   2) *The Gold Bug*   3) *The Tell-Tale Heart*   4) *The Pit and the Pendulum*
168. The word "it" in line 7 refers to ………
    1) *Tales*   2) *The Raven*   3) *The Tell-Tale Heart*   4) *The Pit and the Pendulum*
169. All the following are mentioned about *the Raven* EXCEPT ………
    1) dramatic tone   2) intense repetition   3) hypnotic rhythm   4) cheerful mood
170. It can be concluded from the passage that Edgar Allan Poe ………
    1) died young   2) was poor all his life   3) suffered a mental problem   4) was married at a young age

APPENDIX II CORRELATION BETWEEN DIFFERENT SUB-TESTS OF THE SPECIALIZED ENGLISH SECTION FOR MALE CANDIDATES

Correlations

		Grammar	Language structure
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.290**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Languagestructure	Pearson Correlation	.290**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Grammar	Languagef unctions
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.286**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Languagefunctions	Pearson Correlation	.286**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Grammar	Clozetest
Grammar	Pearson Correlation	1	.338**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Clozetest	Pearson Correlation	.338**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Vocabulary	Language structure
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	1	.267**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Languagestructure	Pearson Correlation	.267**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Vocabulary	Languagef unctions
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	1	.315**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Languagefunctions	Pearson Correlation	.315**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Vocabulary	Clozetest
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	1	.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Clozetest	Pearson Correlation	.351**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Language structure	Languagef unctions
Languagestructure	Pearson Correlation	1	.270**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Languagefunctions	Pearson Correlation	.270**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Language structure	Clozetest
Languagestructure	Pearson Correlation	1	.247**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Clozetest	Pearson Correlation	.247**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Language structure	Readingcom prehension
Languagestructure	Pearson Correlation	1	.263**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Readingcomprehension	Pearson Correlation	.263**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Languagef unctions	Clozetest
Languagefunctions	Pearson Correlation	1	.368**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Clozetest	Pearson Correlation	.368**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**· Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Clozetest	Readingcom prehension
Clozetest	Pearson Correlation	1	.414**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	329	329
Readingcomprehension	Pearson Correlation	.414**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	329	329

**· Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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Maryam Javadizad was born in Isfahan, Iran in 1982. She is now a M.A. student in TEFL in Department of English, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Najafabad, Iran.

Her research interests include Applied Linguistics, Testing, and Sociolinguistics.

Hossein Barati has a PhD in "Language Testing" from University of Bristol and has been involved in research in language testing, programme evaluation, reading strategies, and classroom discourse.

He works in the English department, University of Isfahan, where he is Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics. He has published in areas of language testing and assessment, and language programme evaluation. He is currently working on "*New plans for Teaching English to Iranian adult non-majors*", "*Teaching English to Iranian young learners*", and "*The consequential validity of high stakes tests in the Iranian context*".

Akbar Hesabi has PhD in applied linguistics and works as lecturer and one of Teaching Assistance at English Department, University of Isfahan, Iran.

His areas of interest include Linguistics, Neurolinguistics, Computational Linguistics and Machine Translation. He has published several articles in these areas.

The Clash between the Desire and the Real World—A Stylistic Analysis of the Short Story "Theft"

Bing Sun
Beijing Union University, China
Email: sb5057_cn@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—The short story "Theft" is analyzed in a linguistic method to explore the heroine's inward world, thus revealing the clash and opposition between the real world and the protagonist's desire. The stylistic analysis focuses on the linguistic methods as conversational implicatures, transitivity, etc. The revelation of material pursuit of the characters in the story through the use of symbolism foregrounds the protagonist's disappointment with the real world. The use of parallel structures and the transitivity of material process and mental process both strengthens the misery of the protagonist in both love and money respects, though the protagonist cares love much more than money.

Index Terms—clash, desire, real world, mental world

I. ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Katherine Anne Porter's reputation as one of American's most distinguished writers rests chiefly on her superb short stories. She explores the psychology of her characters by revealing their outward actions. Overall Porter is known as a writer of tremendous clarity. Her works have been compared to that of Faulkner and Hemingway in their stylistic beauty. However, she herself creates this unique style and constructs it into remarkable objective pieces full of imagery and symbolism. Porter focuses on the darker side of reality but uses her own sort of humor to lighten her writings. In addition, her works are often focused in such Southern locations as Mexico, Texas, and the Southwest in general.

"Miss Porter tends to write a story by sending the mind of a character to trouble the past, turning facts into myths and myths into mythologies; then to return, freighted and ready... In stories of this pattern, the characters are normally motionless, like statues: their memories move with their desires, but these are the only movements...In Miss Porter's best stories the past is so rich that it suffuses the present and often smothers it, and even when there is nothing more there is enough. But this means that her characters are utterly dependent upon the past for their development." (Donoghue, 1965)

II. ABOUT THE STORY

The story is abstracted from "50 Great Short Stories"(Crane, 1952). The plot of "theft" begins on a frozen moment in which the protagonist, who is "uncomfortable in the ownership of things," recalls the events that led up to her discovery of the theft of her purse, a beautiful purse made of gold cloth that is not only her property and the container of her money, but is also traditionally a metonym for money. She (or the implied author) looked through the lens of memory and found the truth within experience. The protagonist looks at her immediate past, and discovers meaning in life.

Money is a central motif in "theft". All the other characters in the story are associated with the protagonist by money. Camilo, who is as poor as she, often pays her fare on the train. She has to contribute a dime to the fare for a taxi she and Roger took. And Bill owes her money for work she has done on his play. By taking the purse, the janitress is demanding that the protagonist had failed to claim or declaim what is rightfully hers. A part of her discovery is that her apathy has contributed to her losses, the moral and spiritual implications of which are illuminated in the religious structure and imagery throughout the story (Unrue, 1993).

III. THE FUNCTIONS OF THE CONVERSATIONS AND CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURES

To the surprise of most readers, the protagonist of the story is not designated a name, while the other characters who are related to her one way or another all have names. How old she is, how she looks like and what dress she is in, are all mysterious to the readers. The only material thing connected to her is the purse, the **empty** purse. Her identity can not so clearly be referred to as the other characters' can be by names. So we may find that she is distanced from the readers in the physical world. By blurring the physical identity of the protagonist the author brings to the prominence her feeling identity and true thinking identity.

The relationships of the characters in the story are mostly revealed through conversations. Any specific information

about her, if there is, is little by little unfolded to the readers through her interaction and conversations with other characters.

The only utterance she made to Camilo is "You know it simply will not do" when he insisted on a taxi. This is a very simple, economical and strong statement carrying something that one is embarrassed to explain. There is no hesitation with "simply…not". We and Camilo together, sense that there is no room to change her mind. At that time of a raining night, Camilo's insistence must be understandable, and he was behaving like a gentleman. Maybe he really cares about her but is not able to afford the care. No money things are mentioned in their talks.

Now let's have a look at her conversation with Roger, who seems to be a close friend of her because "they exchanged a glance full of long amiable associations". The conversation is initiated by the following:

She said: "The more it skids the calmer I feel, so I **really must be** drunk."

The former part of the statement may be true or may not be true. We will rely on the coming up to judge what she really intends to say. If she is stating something in a as-a-matter-of-fact tone, she could have just said: "I'm really drunk" or "I must be drunk". A word of certainty in combination with a word of uncertainty is implied to reveal her indirect desire to be consoled (for she just received a letter). What is meant is more than what is said. After all, they are acquainted with each other a long time. It's very natural for a lady to say something like that in seeking comfort from a friend like that.

But Roger filters out the implication part "really", and keeps the literal part "must be".

"You must be," said Roger. "This bird is a homicidal maniac, and I could do with a cocktail myself this minute."

He probably thinks he is humorous by referring to a certain kind of cocktail wine with a word from the animal category, presupposing that both of them understand "cock" is a bird. This reply is just a reply for it doesn't carry much care for the protagonist. If his reply is "you really are" instead of "you must be", the effect and the consequence could be very different. Then it would be inconsistent and unreasonable for him to talk about things concerning himself. In the latter part of the conversation, money things are mentioned first by Roger "I've just enough if you'll add ten cents," and then his complaint about the "holding out", which is a metonym for "giving money". We notice that the protagonist responds, but with indifference. The readers now know more than Roger about what she really wants to talk about. Shouldn't amiable friends be understanding? If yes, it's reasonable; if not, then there is the irony. The conversational implicature (Grice, 1989, p24-37) is not successfully taken by another side. In this conversation both the addresser and the addressee superficially are exchanging something as if they know much of each other. There is not much concern for each other even though at the end of conversation Roger presumably makes a note that she should take aspirin …to remind her of his being a friend. It's too late and means nothing but a sign to end the conversation. What we feel more and more is the indifference to each other, and this indifference is most strengthened in the following conversation with Bill, on whose play, she had a scene.

He said: "For Christ's sake, come in and have a drink with me. I've had some bad news."

Bad news for him or her?

And this is immediately followed by his comment "You're perfectly sopping,"

He notices that she just comes back from the rain, but is still determined to keep her in his boring talk about his play being rejected and complaint of his wife's **extravagance** because giving her **ten** *dollars every week of my* **unhappy** *life* is too much for him. And all this makes him on the edge of *weeping* **again**.

The conversational implicature leads us to the inference that the bad news must involve her for his insistence on her listening to his complaint at that an hour of that night. We notice that this part takes up a large amount of discourse time. This evidence, on the one hand, shows that he is cruel regardless of the state the protagonist is in. On the other hand, he seems to violate the maxim of relation of cooperative principle in conversation in an attempt to behave like a "gentleman" not to break out the bad news directly that he is not able to pay her. This violation of maxim of relation actually doubles his cruelty in that he prolongs her suffering both physically and mentally. The protagonist's misery is highlighted.

His topic is only money things. His wife's asking for ten dollars a week can be extravagant, and he even weeps for money losses repeatedly. Love and friendship are all replaced by money. This money worshipping attitude is easily associated with his cruelty. To this long part of monologue, she takes her turn, but in another direction, "Well, this is a pretty rug, anyhow," which works as a transition to her mentioning the payment. In contrast to Bill' violation, she also violates the maxim of relation, in hopes that he will stop self torturing. She attempts the payment request and is refused. So it is evident that the protagonist is also passive in the material world, in addition to her love world.

IV. SYMBOLISM

Both the purse and the hats are used symbolically in this short story. Their relations to their possessors are understood indispensable. It seems that a lady cannot do without a purse and a man cannot do without a hat. And their attitudes towards their possessions (hats and purse) reflect their attitudes towards material possessions and life.

In this story, each of the men except Bill is identified by his hat. The hat serves to symbolize a man's status as well. Camilo is wearing a new hat of pretty biscuit shade. He cannot afford but lets the rain spoil his hat. He is a young man, who maybe just starts his career and is not totally accustomed to the society, because he only manages *a set of smaller courtesies, ignoring the larger and more troublesome ones*. He is not quite sure how to behave appropriately in this

society. On the one hand, he tends to be chivalrous; on the other hand he is restricted by the reality. In the protagonist's eyes, he is quite inexperienced and still does not know how to fit into the society, *for it never occurred to him to buy anything of a practical color*. Perhaps he is quite realistic but cannot afford to be realistic. What he chooses and what he does cannot be integrated into one as a whole. He is trying to protect his hat against the rain, but meantime is afraid of being suspected of such an attempt. The subtle irony is exploited through his awkward reaction to the reality.

The absent Eddie, on the other hand, is quite different from Camilo. He always wears shabby hats, *precisely seven years old*. Eddie, seen only in the protagonist's memory, doesn't value the material object beyond its usefulness. *Seven* symbolically suggests a cycle in the creation of the world in religion. Eddie seems to be quite exposed to the society and he knows what is good and what is bad; what is right and what is wrong. His experience with the whole cycle of the world helps in his attitude towards to life. Apparently this attitude is appreciated by the protagonist, for *they sat with a careless and incidental rightness on Eddie*.

Roger protects his hat from the rain by buttoning it up inside his overcoat. He is much more practical and apathetic than Camilo. To a large extent, he is careful and takes no risk in treating his material object. He openly shows his attitude towards material things and life.

Bill, not associated with a hat, is the least enigmatic or sympathetic of all the characters. He doesn't bother to have a hat to show his attitude towards material possessions and life. He just openly speaks them out.

The protagonist treats her purse the same way as Eddie does. She shares Eddie's attitudes towards material things. The attitude towards the purse can be understood both in material sense and in love sense. No mention is made of her protection of her purse from the rain while other characters are making various attempts to protect their hats. The fact is that her purse gets wet inside out. In another sense, she values the purse very much though it is empty because it is a present from someone she loves. The claiming back of the stolen purse reveals that she values love more than material things.

V. PARALLELISTIC STRUCTURE

A writer's choice of language is an attempt to reveal artistic principle. Leech & Short (1981) introduce a method of linguistic analysis, ie: list check of grammatical categories and lexical categories. We may try to approach the following paragraph in their method.

In this moment she felt that she had been robbed of an enormous number of valuable things, whether material or intangible: things lost or broken by her own fault, things she had forgotten **and** left in houses when she moved: books borrowed from her **and** not returned , journeys she had planned **and** had not made, words she had waited to hear spoken to her **and** had not heard, and the words she meant to answer with; bitter alternatives **and intolerable** substitutes worse than nothing, and yet **inescapable**: the long patient suffering of dying friendships and the dark **inexplicable** death of love—all that she had had, and all that she had missed, were **lost** together, and were **twice lost** in this landslide of remembered **losses**. (p187)

This omniscient point of view helps the readers with the access to the protagonist's inward activities. It is half-way the character's thought and half-way the narrator's underlying comment. It neutrally summarizes the protagonist's unsuccessful life both in material aspect and in love aspect. The sentence pattern is balanced through the conjunctive word *and*, which gives the readers impression of "doubleness". This may account for the reason why the writer uses *and* instead of *but*. On the other hand, the things before *and* is either positive or negative, thus the consequences after *and* either contrasting the positive wills or doubling the negative happenings. As a result, the function of the word *and* is both that of contrast and doubleness. It echoes the other word *twice* in the coming part. And all these *and*s accumulate the losses in her life. The syntactic congruency conflates the narrative flow and the trace of thought of the protagonist. In addition, the adjectives *intolerable, inescapable, and inexplicable*, all carrying symmetrical "in-" property, which stresses the unseenness and untouchedness, reinforces the protagonist's helplessness and passiveness in her friendship and love world. The three adjectives are attributive, and they reflect the protagonist's psychological reality. They mainly refer to her relationship with others and her love. Though they do not seem to carry much emotional features, readers surely feel the unhappiness in the protagonist under the superficial calmness. They help in the escalation of material losses into the intangible losses. And finally the climax of her being helpless and unhappiness is reached through the use of *losses*. The redundant uses of *losses* highlight the theme of the protagonist's being denied against her will the "material" things, which are visible and "intangible" things, which are love and friendship.

VI. THIRD PERSON POINT OF VIEW OF MULTIPLE SELECTIVE OMNISCIENCE

Multiple Selective Omniscience is introduced by Friedman according to Shen Dan (1998, p208). The story elements such as the character's words, activities, appearances, background are conveyed to the readers through the character's mind. This point of view directly presents the character's thoughts and feelings.

They waited on the traffic at Fortieth Street and Sixth Avenue, and three boys walked before the nose of the taxi. Under the globes of light they were cheerful scarecrows, all very thin and tall wearing very seedy snappy-cut suits and gay neckties. They were not very sober either, and they stood for a moment wobbling in front of the car, and there was an argument going on among them. They leaned toward each other as if they were getting ready to sing, and the first

one said: "When I get married it won't be jus' for getting married, I'm gonna marry for *love*, see?" and the second one said, "Aw, gwan and tell that stuff to *her*, why n't yuh?" and the third one gave a kind of hoot, and said: "Hell, dis guy? Wot the hell's he got?" and the first one said: "Aaah, shurrup yuh mush, I got plenty." Then they all squealed and scrambled across the street beating the first one on the back and pushing him around.

"Nuts," commented Roger, "pure nuts."

Two girls went skittering by in short transparent raincoats, one green, one red, their heads tucked against the drive of the rain. One of them was saying to the other, "Yes, I know all about *that*. But what about me?" You're always so sorry for *him*…" and they ran on with their little pelican legs flashing back and forth. (p184)

In the story, the scene of the boys and the girls is selectively presented before the readers through the character's eyes and mind. We read what the character chooses to think, and we hear what the character picks out to hear. The narrator here seems to assume the same status as the character in observation. There is a formula, Narrator = Character, which stands for the notion of "inner focalization". This inner focalization in the third person point of view helps us to the direct access to the character's mental world. This typical mixing point of view of narrator and character is also analogous to linguistic expression. According to Cui Xiliang (2001), if the narrative perspective of observation is inside the scene container, it is inner-perspective scene; if it is outside the scene container, it is called exo-perspective scene. So the narrator is inside the scene container with the character, assuming an inner-perspective. Actually, it's the character in the guise of narrator who means to convey to us something of her true feelings.

The boys' talk about "marrying for *love*" and the girls' talk about "being sorry for *him*" are meant to be cohesive to the theme of the story. The protagonist *she* is not going to be married because the one who writes her does not *love* her any more. Perhaps *she* is also sorry for him the way the young girl is feeling for *him*. The cohesive ties are explicitly worded naturally through the young boys' mouths and the young girls' mouths (said is easier than done for young people), and they easily lead us into her implicit mental world. The readers touch the desire there. She wants something but is not satisfied.

VII. TRANSITIVITY OF MENTAL PROCESS AND MATERIAL PROCESS

In the ideational meta-function, Halliday (1994) says that the transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types. The clearly distinguished two are the outer experience, the process of the external world, and inner experience, the process of consciousness. The grammatical categories are those of material processes and mental processes. We try to adopt this functional approach to look at the material processes and mental processes concerning the protagonist. We try to find the prototypical ones in the story.

Verbs representing the material processes are: had walked, staggered slightly, settled back against, went upstairs, tore the letter, set the cup carefully, took the purse, held the purse out, turning away, laid the purse, etc.

The transitivity of the process shows the relation of agent (actor) and patient (goal) or just the experiencer of a certain action and the action itself.

These verbs demonstrate the dynamic interaction of her with the outer world. And they are mostly the actions connected with her feet and hands. They are simple actions without too much violent body movement. And these actions are seldom repeated throughout the discourse. Verb phrases, if analyzed like this, can mean something (Wright & Hope, 1996). The simple verb phrases are to give the texts their matter-of-fact atmosphere. On the other hand, the protagonist herself is much simple and decisive in action, and would not be interfered with by much disturbance from outer world. Also, the slow but determined actions revealed that she reacted to the happenings in the world in a way she already knew the outcomes and would not act on impulse like young girls. It seemed that she had experienced too much disappointment in her life and she did not necessarily care any more.

Some of the actions are modified by "steadily" "carefully", like in the sentences: ***Carefully*** *she tore the letter into narrow strips and touched a lighted match to them in the coal grate*. She does not show any violent responses after finishing the letter. *Carefully* here takes initial place of the clause and serves as the theme, which has the salient status in a sense, hence more or less psychologically carrying more weight than the action itself. It evidently reveals the inner state of the protagonist. The outward actions are unusually highlighted to conceal her inward excitement. Another one is *She set the cup **carefully** in the center of the table, and walked **steadily** downstairs,…* This happened just after she found her purse missing, and there is anger rising in her. The actions in consequence are respectively modified by these two adverbs. The more excited inside, the calmer she will become outside. And this is justified by the remarks made by herself "*The more it skids the calmer I feel,…*", which is typically characteristic of the protagonist. This paradoxical inward and outward activities implicitly demonstrates the clash between her will and the reality.

Verbs representing mental processes are: had intended, kept thinking, compared, had not feared, felt, was thinking, remembered, felt, etc.

These verbs demonstrate the static inner activities. A lot of them are directly indicating the true feelings of her inner world. The inward actions are more vivid than the outward actions, though they cannot be seen.

She remembered how she had never locked a door in her life, on some principle of rejection in her that made her uncomfortable in the ownership of things, and her paradoxical boast before the warnings of her friends, that she had never lost a penny by theft; and she had been pleased with the bleak humility of this concrete example designed to illustrate and justify a certain fixed, otherwise baseless and general faith which ordered the movement of her life

without regard to her will in the matter.

This is actually a free indirect thought.

In the following part we are going to read the grammatical metaphor of transitivity in terms of Hallidayian method.

She had sat down and read the letter over again: but there were phrases that insisted on being read many times, they had a life of their own separate from the others, and when she tried to read past and around them, they moved with the movement of her eyes, and she could not escape them…(p186)

She, actually, was the reader of the letter, to be more technique, the Agent (Actor) of the reading action. The author raises the Goal *phrases* to the subject position, hence reducing the agentivity of *she*. The effect of *her* unwillingness to read the letter is in a sense foregrounded, and the verb *insisted on* helps much in the effect salience. The reversed Actor-Goal relation is further found in the second clause. That is, the personification of the Goal *phrases* in the second clause signals a transference from passiveness to activeness because "they had a life", "they moved", so as to contrast her helplessness and passiveness to break away from the inescapable real world. "They" stood out because "they had a life of their own separate from the others". For all *her* unwillingness, these living phrases were meant (by the writer of the letter) to follow "the movement of her eyes", while other phrases which might not be as hurting as those living phrases turned out to be rather static (not moving) and unimportant in the news breaking. The author here uses the word "separate" rather than "different" in an attempt to bring it to the congruence to the use of the word "moved" in the following clause. As a result, the phrases in the letter are peeled into two groups, one moving as the foreground, the other being static as the background. Consequently what impresses the readers is that what *she* wanted was separated away from *her*, whereas what *she* did not want could not be escaped by *her*. We definitely understand she was passive in fulfilling her will.

The broken, incomplete arrangement of the words by the author is naturally correspondent to the imaginary scene.

"thinking about you more than I mean to … yes, I even talk about you … why were you so anxious to destroy … even if I could see you now I would not … not worth all this abominable … the end…"

We may as well take there is icon (a term in cognitive linguistics) between the language form and the imaginary scene, for it is very natural for one to do the broken reading when he tries to concentrate. This may account for one of the reasons. It may account for another reason in another respect. This kind of arrangement with regular intervals in between the sentences indicates that the protagonist is certainly not happy, but not that unhappy as not to be unable to finish the reading. Though the reaction of the protagonist to the letter may not be as strong as the first time (for this is the second time *she* read the letter), the linear quick and slow eye movement reveals the vertical up and down excitement she is reasonably operating on. So this is also what I mean by iconicity between language form and the physical or mental experience. The broken sentences provide not much but sufficient information concerning the protagonist. Some one is determined to bring an end (through the word "end") to the love affairs between them, for he cannot stand such a relation (through the word "abominable"). All this is due to her own fault (through the word "destroy"). The semantic progression can be depicted to be going up first (going on) and stopping on the top and then going down (coming back), if we try to focus on the key words in each phrase group.

The relationship between protagonist and the man is also bi-directionally depicted in the progression in that there are positive words indicating that it is going for good before "destroy", and after that there are negative ones indicating that it is going for worse. There are ups and downs and finally end, if we look at the diagram vertically. Semantically the down parts are stronger than the upper parts, because in the information structure negative adjuncts are the focusing adjuncts. As a result they carry heavier semantic weight than other parts in the statements.

VIII. Conclusion

Through stylistic analysis we have a clear understanding of the strong clash between the protagonist's inward desire and the reality. Her inward mental activities contrast her seemingly peaceful appearance and rather slow reactions. The more she is pressed by the reality, the more violent she is within her. The misfortune in her loss of her purse accompanies the misfortune in her love world and doubles her misery. We do not see much violent reactions from the protagonist towards the theft of love and money, even friendship. Actually we all see that when no desire is shown the suffering the protagonist experiences shall be in its deepest moment.

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Bing Sun, female, was born in Heilongjiang, China in 1964. She received her Master degree in linguistics from Peking University,
China in 2006. She now is an associate professor in the Department of Foreign Languages, Beijing Union University, Beijing, China.
Her research interest is functional linguistics and cognitive linguistics.

A Short Introduction to Semantics

Karim Nazari Bagha

Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Astara Branch, Astara, Iran
Email: nazaribagha2011@yahoo.com; k.nazari@iau-astara.ac.ir

Abstract—**Semantics is the study of meaning in language. Although it can be conceived as concerned with meaning in general, it is often confined to those aspects which are relatively stable and context-free, in contrast to pragmatics, which is concerned with meaning variation with context. Semantics is sometimes described as concerned with the relation of linguistic forms to states of the world; more sensibly, it may be seen as concerned with the relation of linguistic forms to non-linguistic concepts and mental representations, as well as with relationship, of meaning between linguistic forms, such as synonymy, antonymy and hyponymy. Semantic theories have influenced approaches to describing word meaning, and are thus particularly relevant to Lexicography and vocabulary teaching.**

Index Terms—**semantic theories, compositional semantics, lexical semantics, semantic features, semantic roles, lexical relations**

I. INTRODUCTION

Semantics is the study of meaning. Seen by Breal, in the late 19th century, as an emerging science (French, 'semantique') opposed to phonetics ('phonetique') as a science of sounds: similarly for Bloomfield in 1930, it was a field covering, as one account of meaningful forms, and the lexicon. Also seen more narrowly, in a traditional lasting into the 1960s, as the study of meaning in the lexicon alone, including changes in word meaning. Later, in accounts in which the study of distribution was divorced from that of meanings, opposed either to grammar in general; or, within grammar and especially within a generative grammar from the 1960s onwards, to syntax specifically. Of the uses current at the beginning of the 21st century, many restrict semantics to the study of meaning is abstraction from the contexts in which words and sentences are uttered: in opposition, therefore, to pragmatics. Others include pragmatics as one of its branches. In others its scope is in practice very narrow: thus one handbook of 'contemporary semantic theory', in the mid-1990s deals almost solely with problems in formal semantics, even the meanings of lexical units being neglected.

II. DEFINITION

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. We know that language is used to express meanings which can be understood by others. But meanings exist in our minds and we can express what is in our minds through the spoken and written forms of language (as well as through gestures, action etc.). The sound patterns of language are studied at the level of phonology and the organization of words and sentences is studied at the level of morphology and syntax. These are in turn organized in such a way that we can convey meaningful messages or receive and understand messages. 'How is language organized in order to be meaningful?' This is the question we ask and attempt to answer at the level of semantics. Semantics is that level of linguistic analysis where meaning is analyzed. It is the most abstract level of linguistic analysis, since we cannot see or observe meaning as we can observe and record sounds. Meaning is related very closely to the human capacity to think logically and to understand. So when we try to analyze meaning, we are trying to analyze our own capacity to think and understand our own ability to create meaning. Semantics concerns itself with 'giving a systematic account of the nature of meaning' (Leech, 1981).

III. WHAT IS MEANING?

Philosophers have puzzled over this question for over 2000 years. Their thinking begins from the question of the relationship between words and the objects which words represent. For example, we may ask: What is the meaning of the word 'cow'? One answer would be that it refers to an animal who has certain properties, that distinguish it from other animals, who are called by other names. Where do these names come from and why does the word 'cow' mean only that particular animal and none other? Some thinkers say that there is no essential connection between the word 'cow' and the animal indicated by the word, but we have established this connection by convention and thus it continues to be so. Others would say that there are some essential attributes of that animal which we perceive in our minds and our concept of that animal is created for which we create a corresponding word. According to this idea, there is an essential correspondence between the sounds of words and their meanings, e.g., the word 'buzz' reproduces 'the sound made by a bee'. It is easy to understand this, but not so easy to understand how 'cow' can mean' a four-;egged bovine' – there is nothing in the sound of the word 'cow' to indicate that, (Children often invent words that illustrate the

correspondence between sound and meaning: they may call a cow 'moo-moo' because they hear it making that kind of sound.)

The above idea that words in a language correspond to or stand for the actual objects in the world is found in Plato's dialogue Cratylus. However, it applies only to some words and not to others, for example, words that do not refer to objects, e.g. 'love', 'hate'. This fact gives rise to the view held by later thinkers, that the meaning of a word is not the object it refers to, but the concept of the object that exists in the mind. Moreover, as de Saussure pointed out, the relation between the word (signifier) and the concept (signified) is an arbitrary one, i.e. the word does not resemble the concept. Also, when we try to define the meaning of a word we do so by using other words. So, if we try to explain the meaning of 'table' we need to use other words such as 'four', 'legs', and 'wood' and these words in turn can be explained only by means of other words.

In their book, The Meaning of Meaning (1923), C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards made an attempt to define meaning. When we use the word 'mean', we use it in different ways. 'I mean to do this' is a way of expressing our intention. 'The red signal means stop' is a way of indicating what the red signal signifies. Since all language consists of signs, we can say that every word is a sign indicating something-usually a sign indicates other signs. Ogden and Richards give the following list of some definitions of 'meaning'. Meaning can be any of the following:

1. An intrinsic property of some thing
2. Other words related to that word in a dictionary
3. The connotations of a word (that is discussed below)
4. The thing to which the speaker of that word refers
5. The thing to which the speaker of that word should refer
6. The thing to which the speaker of that word believes himself to be referring
7. The thing to which the hearer of that word believes is being referred to.

These definitions refer to many different ways in which meaning is understood. One reason for the range of definitions of meaning is that words (or signs) in a language are of different types. Some signs indicate meaning in a direct manner, e.g. an arrow ($\rightarrow$) indicates direction. Some signs are representative of the thing indicated, e.g. onomatopoeic words such as 'buzz', 'tinkle', 'ring'; even 'cough', 'slam', 'rustle' have onomatopoeic qualities. Some signs do not have any resemblance to the thing they refer to, but as they stand for that thin, they are symbolic.

IV. WORDS AND MEANINGS

'When I use a word', Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean neither more nor less.'

'The question is' said Alice, 'whether you can make words mean so many different things.'

(Lewis Carroll. Alice through the Looking Glass. Macmillan 1871)

We distinguish between a word and its meaning. We will start with an ordinary word pen. What does the word pen mean? Pen is a concept in your mind and you know a variety of facts about it – the fact that it is spelt 'pen', that it is a noun, and so on. Let us make this word bold and call it pen. The name of your concept for pen is just pen.

One other fact that you know about pen is that it means: 'an apparatus for writing, …. This is also part of your knowledge. Therefore it must be another concept. Now we have two concepts and it is essential to keep these concepts distinct, so we shall call this second concept 'pen'; i.e. by single quotes.

In fact, when we use the word as a name for its meaning we are actually using it in the normal way. That is what words are: names for their meanings. So we could say pen mean 'pen'.

V. SENSE AND REFERENT

In the above discussion we assumed that the word pen always has the same meaning, namely 'pen'. To use a technical term, we could say pen has 'pen' as its sense.

Now look at the following sentence:

1) Jack put his pen next to Bettye's pen.

What is the meaning of the word pen in this sentence? On the one hand we could agree that it has the same meaning each time it is used, but on the other hand we would also agree that it is used to mean two different things, Jack's pen and Betty's pen. Thus we are using the word meaning in two different ways. When we agreed that both examples of pen have the same meaning we meant that they have the same sense. But when we think of pen as meaning specifically Jack's pen we have a different kind of meaning in mind – something like "the particular pen the speaker has in mind when saying that word."

There is a technical term which we could easily use for 'having something particular in mind when saying a word', which is the verb refer. This allows us to say that the speaker of (1) was referring to Jack's pen when saying his pen, but to Betty's when saying Betty's pen. The thing referred to is called the word's referent, so the two pens in (1) have the same sense but different referents. In short, we can recognize two parts to the meaning of a word like pen: its sense which lives permanently in the dictionary, and its referent, which varies from occasion to occasion.

VI. REFERENCE

The study of reference, like the study of sense, can be divided into two areas: speaker-reference and linguistic-reference. Speaker-reference is what the speaker is referring to by using some linguistic expression. For example, if someone utters the sentence Here comes Queen Elizabeth facetiously, to refer to a snobbish acquaintance, then the speaker-reference of the expression Queen Elizabeth is the acquaintance. Speaker-reference, because it varies according to the speaker and context, is outside the domain of semantics; instead it is part of pragmatics. Linguistic-reference, on the other hand, is the systematic denotation of some linguistic expression as part of a language. For example, the linguistic expression Queen Elizabeth in the sentence Here comes Queen Elizabeth refers in fact to the public figure Queen Elizabeth. Linguistic-reference, in contrast to speaker-reference, is within the domain of semantics, since it deals with reference that is a systematic function of the language itself, rather than of the speaker and context.

Let's now consider some concepts that seem useful in thinking and talking about reference (referent, extension, prototype, and stereotype); then we will take a look at some different types of linguistic reference (coreference, anaphora, and deixis).

Referent. The entity identified by the use of a referring expression such as a noun or noun phrase is the referent of that expression. If, for example, you point to a particular robin and say That bird looks sick, then the referent for the referring expression That bird is the particular robin you are pointing at.

Extension. Extension refers to the set of all potential referents for a referring expression. For example, the extension of bird is the set of all entities (past, present, and future) that could systematically be referred to by the expression bird. In other words, the extension of bird is the set of all birds.

Prototype. A typical member of the extension of a referring expression is a prototype of that expression. For example, a robin or a bluebird might be a prototype of bird; a pelican or an ostrich, since each is somewhat atypical, would not be.

Stereotype. A list of characteristics describing a prototype is said to be a stereotype. For example, the stereotype of bird might be something like the following: has two legs and two wings, has feathers, is about six to eight inches from head to tail, makes a chirping noise, lays eggs, builds nests, and so on.

Coreference. Two linguistic expressions that refer to the same real-world entity are said to be coreferential. Consider, for example, the sentence Jay Leno is the host of the Tonight Show. The expression Jay Leno and The host of the Tonight Show are coreferential because they both refer to the same entity, namely the person Jay Leno. Not, however, the coreferential expressions do not "mean" the same thing; that is, they are not synonymous. For example, before Jay Leno hosted the Tonight show, Johnny Carson held that position; thus, there was a period of time when Johnny Carson was corefereential with host of the tonight show. However, we cannot describe Johnny Carson and Jay Leno as "meaning" the same thing. The fact that they are not synonymous is illustrated by the unacceptability of the sentence *Jay Leno used to be Johnny Carson.

Anaphora. A linguistic expression that refers to another linguistic expression is said to be anaphoric or an anaphor. Consider the sentence Mary wants to play whoever thinks himself capable of beating her. In this sentence the linguistic expression himself necessarily refers to whoever; thus himself is being used anaphorically in this case. Note, moreover, that it would be inaccurate to claim that whoever and himself are coreferential (i.e., that they have the same extralinguistic referent). This is because there may in fact not be anyone who thinks himself capable of beating Mary; that is, there may not be any extralinguistic referent for Whoever and himself.

It is common, however, for coreference and anaphora to coincide. Consider, for example, the sentence The media reported that Congress voted themselves a raise. The expressions Congress and themselves are coreferential since they refer to the same real-world entity, namely the legislative branch of the federal government. At the same time, themselves is an anaphor since it necessarily refers to the expression congress. Note that there is no reading of this sentence such that themselves can be construed as referring to the expression the media. In sum, coreference deals with the relation of a linguistic expression to some entity in the real world, past, present, or future; anaphora deals with the relation between two linguistic expressions.

Deixis (pronounced DIKE-sis). A deictic expression has one meaning but can refer to different entities depending on the speaker and his or her spatial and temporal orientation. Obvious examples are expressions such as you and I, here and there, and right and left. Assume, for instance, that Jack and Jill are speaking to each other face to face. When Jack is speaking, I refers to Jack, and you refers to Jill. When Jill is speaking, the referents for these expressions reverse. Likewise, when Jack is speaking, here refers to a position near Jack, and there refers to a position near Jill. When Jill speaks, the referents for these expressions reverse. Similarly, right and left can refer to the same location, depending upon whether Jack or Jill is speaking; his left is her right, and vice versa. Likewise, expressions such as Jack or Jill is speaking; his left is her right, and vice versa. Likewise, expressions such as yesterday, today, and tomorrow are deitic. Jack may say to Jill, Yesterday I told you I would pay you tomorrow, which is today.

Note, moreover, that deixis can intersect with anaphora. Consider, for example, the sentence Members of Congress believe they deserve a raise. The expression they can refer either to the expression members of Congress or to some other plural entity in the context of the utterance. When, as in the first case, a pronoun refers to another linguistic expression, it is used anaphorically; when, as in the second case, it refers to some entity in the extralinguistic context, it is used deictically.

VII.   SPEAKER'S MEANING AND SEMANTIC MEANING

Everyone knows that language can be used to express meaning, but it is not easy to define meaning. One problem is that there are several dimensions of meaning. Imagine that I ask you, "Can you give me an apple?" while looking at bowl of apples on the table beside you. What I literally asked is whether you have the ability to give me an apple; this is the semantic meaning of what I said. Sometimes people will make an annoying joke by responding only to the semantic meaning of such a question; they'll just answer, "Yes, I can." But what I almost certainly want is for you to give me one of the apples next to you, and I expect you to know that this is what I want. This speaker's meaning is what I intend to communicate, and it goes beyond the literal, semantic meaning of what I said.

Linguists study both semantic meaning and speaker's meaning. Let's look at semantic meaning first. To understand semantic meaning, we have to bring together three main components: the context in which a sentence is used, the meanings of the words in the sentence, and its morphological and syntactic structure. For example, suppose you say to me:

1) My dog chased a cat under the house.

Because (1) contains the pronoun my, part of its meaning depends on the fact that you uttered it, my refers to you. So to some extent the semantic meaning of a sentence depends on the context of use – the situation in which the sentence was uttered, by a particular speaker, to a particular addressee, at a particular time, and so forth. The semantic meaning of (1) also depends on the meanings of the individual words dog, chased, a, cat, etc.; therefore, semantic meaning depends on the lexicon of English. In addition, the morphological and syntactic structure of sentence (1) is crucial to its meaning. If the words were rearranged to A cat Under the house chased my dog, it would mean something different. So semantic meaning depends on the grammatical structure of the sentence.

Now let's think about the speaker's meaning of (1). Suppose that you know I've lost my cat and you say (1) to me. In that case, it would be likely that your speaker's meaning is to inform me that my cat may be hiding under the house, and to suggest that I go there to look for it. To understand where this meaning comes from, we need to bring together two components. First, the semantic meaning is certainly part of the picture; there is some kind of connection between your saying that your dog chased a cat under the house and your suggesting that I look for my lost cat under the house. But in order for me to understand your speaker's meaning, I have to assume that we both know my cat is missing, that you know I want to find it, and that you want to see that my cat is safely back home. These are additional aspects of the context of use which help to determine your speaker's meaning.

We can visualize the two kinds of meaning as follows:
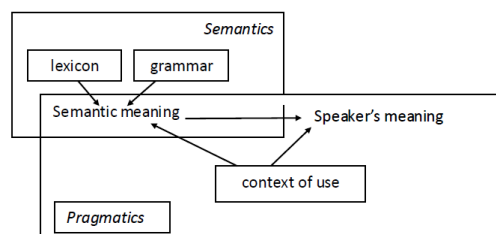
VIII.   THE TWO MAIN BRANCHES OF SEMANTICS

Grammar (morphology and syntax) generate novel words, phrases, and sentences – in fact an infinite number of them. This gives us an infinite number of words, phrases, and sentences that can have meaning. In order to explain how an infinite number of pieces of language can be meaningful, and how we, as language users, can figure out the meanings of new ones every day, semanticists apply the Principle of Compositionality.

The Principle of Compositionality: The semantic meaning of any unit of language is determined by the semantic meanings of its parts along with the way they are put together.

According to the Principle of Compositionality, the meaning of a sentence like Mary liked you is determined by (a) the meanings of the individual morphemes that make it up (Mary, like, you, "past") and (b) the morphological and syntactic structures of the sentence. The Principle of Compositionality doesn't just apply to sentences. It also implies that the meaning of the verb phrase liked you is determined by the meanings of its parts and the grammatical structure of the verb phrase, and that the meaning of the word liked is determined by the meanings of the two morphemes that make it up (like and (e)d). The subfield of semantics known as compositional semantics (or formal semantics) is especially concerned with how the Principle of Compositionality applies, and consequently formal semanticists study the variety of grammatical patterns which occur in individual languages and across the languages of the world. Formal semantics developed in linguistics during the early 1970s under the influence of philosophers, especially Richard Montague (Montague 1974).

Linguists who are interested in the meanings of words, and the relations among words' meanings, study lexical semantics. Thematic roles provide one very popular framework for investigating lexical semantics, in particular the lexical semantics of verbs, but not the only one. Lexical semantics is very interesting to syntacticians, because the

meaning of a word often influences how it fits into syntax; for example, the fact that ripen can have two different patterns of thematic role explains why it can be used grammatically either with or without an object.

IX. DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF MEANING OF A WORD

(i) Denotative meaning. The logical meaning, which indicates the essential qualities of a concept which distinguish it from other concepts.

(ii) Connotative meaning. The additional or associated meaning, which is attached to the denotative, conceptual meaning. It consists of associations made with a concept whenever that concept is referred to.

(iii) Social meaning. It is the meaning that a word possesses by virtue of its use in particular social situations and circumstances.

(iv) Thematic meaning. It lies in the manner in which a message is organized for emphasis.

X. THEORIES OF MEANING

Here, we will briefly discuss the theories concerned with semantics.

1. The Theory of Naming; This theory, explained in Plato's dialogue Cratylus maintains that language is a communication system which works with two elements; the signifier, and the signified. Plato says that the signifier is a word in the language and the signified is the object in the world that it 'stands for' or 'refers to'. Thus, according to this theory words and things are directly related. Traditional grammar was based on the assumption that the word was the basic unit of syntax and semantics. The word was a 'sign' composed of two parts, or components: the form (signifier) and its meaning (signified).

There are some difficulties with this view, however. Firstly, it seems to apply to some nouns only. You may locate the signified (object) which the signifier (word) 'chair' refers to. However, there are some nouns which do not refer to objects in this world: examples are Unicorn and Raxsh (Rostam's special horse in the Iranian epic written by Ferdousi). Secondly, there are other nouns that do not refer to physical objects at all. Thus, what are the objects which love and hatred refer to? Thirdly, with a noun we can draw a picture of the object that is denoted (referred to). But this is impossible with verbs. How should we show run, hesitate, and annoy? The same problem remains regarding adjectives and adverbs, as well.

2. The Conceptual Theory of Meaning: In the theory of meaning, just explained, words and things are directly related. But in the conceptual theory of meaning words and things are related through the mediation of concepts of the mind. Ogden and Richards (1923) saw this relationship as a triangle:

Thought (or Reference or Meaning or Concept)

Word
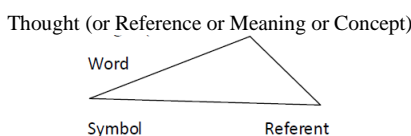
Symbol   Referent

the symbol = the linguistic element; the word, phrase, sentence
the referent = the object in the world
thought or reference = concept

Thus, according to this theory there is no direct link between the symbol and referent – the link is through reference or thought (our concepts). The problem with this view is that we do not precisely know the nature of the link or bond between symbol and concept.

The conceptual theory of meaning or mentalistic theory is maintained by Chomsky. He believes that intuition and introspection must play a crucial part in our investigation of language.

3. The Behavioristic Theory of Meaning: The term context of situation is used by two scholars, first by an anthropologist called Malinowski, and later by a British linguist called Firth. Both of these scholars stated meaning in terms of the context in which language is used. These two maintained that the description of a language is not complete without some reference to the context of situation in which the language operated. A more extreme view sees the meaning of the linguistic elements AS the situation in which the word is used. Bloomfield, the structuralist, maintained this behavioristic view. He explained his view through his famous account of Jack and Jill.

As we know, Bloomfield is a follower of Skinner's school of psychology called behaviorism. However, Skinner's model has been severely criticized by Chomsky, a proponent of the conceptual theory of meaning.

XI. SEMANTIC FEATURES

One obvious way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful in the study of language would be as a means of accounting for the 'oddness' we experience when we read sentences such as the following:

The hamburger ate the boy.

The table listens to the radio.

The horse is reading the newspaper.

We should first note that the oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure. According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences, we have well-formed structures.

NP   V   NP
The hamburger   ate   the boy

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence The boy ate the hamburger is perfectly acceptable, we may be able to identify the source of the problem. The components of the conceptual meaning of the noun hamburger must be significantly different from those of the noun boy, thereby preventing one, and not the other, from being used as the subject of the verb ate. The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb ate must denote an entity that is capable of 'eating'. The noun hamburger does not have this property and the noun boy does.

We can make this observation more generally applicable by trying to determine the crucial element or feature of meaning that any noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb ate. Such an element may be as general as 'animate being'. We can then use this idea to describe part of the meaning of words as having either plus (+) or minus (-) that particular feature. So, the feature that the noun boy has is '+animate' (= denotes an animate being) and the feature that the noun hamburger has is '-animate' (= does not denote an animate being).

The simple example is an illustration of a procedure for analyzing meaning in terms of semantic features. Features such as '+animate, -animate'; '+human, -human', '+female, -female', for example, can be treated as the basic elements involved in differentiating the meaning of each word in a language from every other word. If we had to provide the crucial distinguishing features of the meanings of a set of English words such as table, horse, boy, man, girl, woman, we could begin with the following diagram.

	table	Horse	boy	Man	girl	woman
Animate	-	+	+	+	+	+
human	-	-	+	+	+	+
Female	-	-	-	-	+	+
Adult	-	+	-	+	-	+

From a feature analysis like this, we can say that at least part of the meaning of the word girl in English involves the elements [+human, +female, - adult]. We can also characterize the feature that is crucially required in a noun in order for it to appear as the subject of a particular verb, supplementing the syntactic analysis with semantic features.

The _____ is reading the newspaper.

       N [+ human]

This approach would give us the ability to predict which nouns make this sentence semantically odd. Some examples would be table, horse and hamburger, because none of them have the required feature [+human].

The approach just outlined is a start on analyzing the conceptual components of word meaning, but it is not without problem. For many words in a language it may not be as easy to come up with neat components of meaning. If we try to think of the components or features we would use to differentiate the nouns advice, threat and warning, for example, we may not be very successful. Part of the problem seems to be that the approach involves a view of words in a language as some sort of 'containers' to carry meaning components. There is clearly more to the meaning of words than these basic types of features.

XII.   SEMANTIC ROLES

Agent: The entity that performs the action.
Theme: The entity that is involved in or affected by the action.
Instrument: if an agent uses another entity in performing an action, that other entity takes the role of instrument. For example, consider the following:

The boy kicked *the ball*. *The man* opened *the door* with *a key*.
Agent   theme   agent   theme   instrument

The theme can also be an entity that is simply being described.

The ball was red.
 theme

Although agents are typically human, they can also be non-human forces, machines, or creatures.

The wind blew the ball away.
 agent

The car ran over the ball.
 agent

The dog caught the ball.
 agent

The theme can also be human.

The boy kicked *himself*.
                theme

Benefactive: The noun or noun phrase that refers to the person or animal who benefits, or is meant to benefit, from

the action of the verb. For example in the sentence John baked a cake for Louise, Louise is in the benefactive case.

Experiencer: When an NP designates an entity as the person who has a feeling, apperception or a state, it fills the role of experience. If we see, know or enjoy something, we don't perform an action, but we are experiencers.

Did _you_ hear that noise?
   Experiencer

Location: It explains where an entity is.

Source: From where an entity moves.

Goal: Where an entity moves to.

She borrowed a magazine _from George_.
                source

She handed the magazine back _to George_.
                goal

XIII. LEXICAL RELATIONS

Not only words can be treated as 'containers' or as fulfilling 'roles', they can also have 'relationships'. The types of lexical relations are as follows:

Synonymy: Two or more forms with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always, intersubstitutable in sentences. For example, Broad = Wide. It should be noted that the idea of 'sameness of meaning' in synonymy is not necessarily 'total sameness'.

Antonymy: Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Antonyms are usually of two main kinds:

1) Gradable: They can be used in comparative constructions. The negative of one member does not necessarily imply the other; e.g. not old doesn't mean young.

2) Non-Gradable (complementary pairs): They are not normally used in comparative constructions and the negative of one member does imply the other; e.g. not dead means alive. But it is important to avoid describing most antonym pairs as one word meaning the negative of another. Consider the opposites tie-untie. The word untie doesn't mean not tie. It means 'do the reverse of tie'. Such pairs are called reversives. Pack-unpack; raise-lower; dress-undress; and lengthen-shorten.

Hyponymy: When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is called hyponymy. In this category, we are looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship e.g. animal-horse, animal-dog. We can say that two or more terms which share the same superordinate (higher up) term are called co-hyponyms. So, dog and horse are co-hyponyms, and animal is superordinate. The Hyponymy captures the idea of 'is a kind of' e.g. Asp is a kind of snake.

Terms for actions can also be hyponyms; e.g. cut, punch, shoot, and stab can all be found as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term injure.

Prototype: It explains the meaning of certain words like bird not in terms of component feature (e.g. 'has wings') but in terms of resemblance to the clearest examplar; e.g. native speakers of English might wonder if ostrich or penguin should be hyponyms of bird, but have no trouble deciding about sparrow or pigeon. The last two are prototypes.

Homophony: When two or more differently written forms have the same pronunciation but different meaning; e.g. sea-see.

Homography: When two or more forms are the same only in writing but different in pronunciation and meaning they are described as homographs such as lead ([lid]) and lead ([led]).

Homonymy: It is when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings, but have the same pronunciation and spelling; e.g. bank (of a river) and bank (financial institution). They have quite different meanings but accidently have the same form.

Polysemy: It can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings which are all related by extension. e.g. head refers to top of your body, top of a glass of beer, top of a company. If two words are treated as homonyms, they will typically have two separate entities.

Metonymy: This relationship is essentially based on a close connection in everyday experience. It may be container-content relation (can-juice); a whole-part relation (car-wheels); or a representative-symbol relation (king-crown). Sometimes making sense of many expressions depends on context, background knowledge and inference.

Collocation: Those words which tend to occur with other words; e.g. hammer collocates with nail; wife with husband and knife with fork.

XIV. TRUTH.

The study of truth or truth conditions in semantics falls into two basic categories: the study of different types of truth embodied in individual sentences (analytic, contradictory, and synthetic) and the study of different types of truth relations that hold between sentences (entailment and presupposition).

Analytic Sentences. An analytic sentence is one that is necessarily true simply by virtue of the words in it. For example, the sentence A bachelor is an unmarried man is true not because the world is the way it is, but because English

language is the way it is. Part of our knowledge of ordinary English is that bachelor "means" an unmarried man, thus to say that one is the other must necessarily be true. We do not need to check on the outside world to verify the truth of this sentence. We might say that analytic sentences are "true by definition." Analytic sentences are sometimes referred to as linguistic truths, because they are true by virtue of the language itself.

Contradictory Sentences. Contradictory sentences are just the opposite of analytic sentences. While analytic sentences are necessarily true as a result of the words in them, contradictory sentences are necessarily false for the same reason. The following sentences are all contradictory: A bachelor is a married man, A blue gas is colorless, A square has five equal sides. In each case, we know the sentence is false because we know the meaning of the words in it: part of the meaning of bachelor is 'unmarried'; part of the meaning of blue is 'has color'; part of the meaning of square is 'four-sided.' It is not necessary to refer to the outside world in order to judge each of these sentences false. Consequently, contradictory sentences are sometimes referred to as linguistic falsities, because they are false by virtue of the language itself.

Synthetic Sentences. Synthetic sentences may be true or false depending upon how the world is. In contrast to analytic and contradictory sentences, synthetic sentences are not true or false because of the words that comprise them, but rather because they do or do not accurately describe some state of affairs in the world. For example, the sentence My next door neighbor, Bud Brown, is married is a synthetic sentence. Note that you cannot judge its truth or falsity by inspecting the words in the sentence. Rather, you must verify the truth or falsity of this sentence empirically, for example by checking the marriage records at the courthouse. Other examples of synthetic sentences include Nitrous oxide is blue, Nitrous oxide is not blue, Bud Brown's house has five sides, and   Bud Brown's house does not have five sides. In each case, the truth or falsity of the sentence can be verified only by consulting the state of affairs that holds in the world. Thus, synthetic sentences are sometimes referred to as empirical truths or falsities, because they are false by virtue of the state of the extralinguistic world.

XV.   ENTAILMENT.

An entailment is a proposition (expressed in a sentence) that follows necessarily from another sentence. For example, Martina aced chemistry entails Martina passed chemistry, because one cannot ace chemistry without passing chemistry. The test for entailment is as follows; sentence (a) entails sentence (b) if the truth of sentence (a) ensures the truth of sentence (b) and if the falsity of sentence (b) ensures the falsity of sentence (a). Our example sentences pass both tests. First, the truth of sentence (a) ensures the truth of sentence (b). Note that if Martina aced chemistry, she necessarily passed chemistry. Second, the falsity of sentence (b) ensures the falsity of sentence (a). If Martina didn't pass chemistry, she necessarily didn't ace chemistry.

Note, however, that the relation of entailment is unidirectional. For instance, consider our example sentences again, but in the opposite order: (b) Martina passed chemistry and (a) Martina aced chemistry. In this case, sentence (b) does not entail (a) (if Martina passed chemistry, she did not necessarily ace chemistry – she may have made a C); and the falsity of (a) does not ensure the falsity of (b) (if Martina did not ace chemistry, it is not necessarily the case that she did not pass chemistry – she may, once again, have made a C). In short, then, it should be clear that the relation of entailment is unidirectional.

This is not to say, however, that there cannot be a pair of sentences such that each entails the other. Rather, when such a relation holds, it is called paraphrase. For example, the sentences Martina passed chemistry and What Martina passed was chemistry are paraphrases of each other. Note, incidentally, that entailment describes the same relationship between sentences that hyponymy describes between words. Likewise, paraphrase describes the same relationship between sentences that synonymy describes between words. These relations are illustrated in the following figure.

Inclusion analogues between sentences and words

	SENTENCES	WORDS
unidirectional	entailment (Martina aced chemistry →Martina passed chemistry)	hyponymy (hate→dislike)
bidirectional	paraphrase (Martina passed chemistry ↔ What Martina passed was chemistry)	synonymy (hate ↔despise)

Thus, if sentence (a) Martina aced chemistry presupposes sentence (b) Martina took chemistry, the denial of sentence (a) Martina did not ace chemistry also presupposes sentence (b) Martina took chemistry. If Martina did not take chemistry, then Martina did not ace chemistry cannot be judged true or false.

The relationship between entailment and presupposition is illustrated in this figure. This figure should be read as follows: Martina aced chemistry entails Martina passed chemistry. Both of those sentences, in turn, presuppose Martina took chemistry.

Relationship between entailment and presupposition
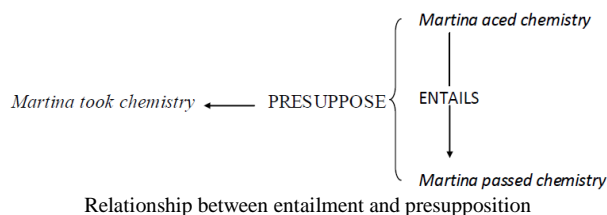
XVI. PRESUPPOSITION.

A presupposition is a proposition (expressed in a sentence) that must be assumed to be true in order to judge the truth or falsity of another sentence. For example, Martina aced chemistry presupposes Martina took chemistry, because acing chemistry assumes the person in question actually took chemistry. The simplest test for presupposition depends upon the fact that a sentence and its denial (i.e., the negative version of the sentence) have the same set of presuppositions. This test is known as constancy under negation.

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Karim Nazari Bagha was born in Ardebil/Iran in 1968. He got his B.A. in English Language and Literature from Ardebil Islamic Azad University in 1992 and his M.A. in TEFL from Tabriz Islamic Azad University in 1996. Now he is a Ph.D. student in General Linguistics at Baku State University.

He is the Faculty Member of Astara Islamic Azad University. So far he has written 8 books and 25 articles published in different countries. His research interests include writing books and articles. • Nazari Bagha, K. (2003). Poetry in English. Tehran: Islamic Azad University Press. • Nazari Bagha, K. (2009). General English for University Students. Ardebil: Mohageg-e-Ardebili Publisher. • Nazari Bagha, K. (2011). Basic English for University Students. Ardebil: Mohageg-e-Ardebili Publisher.

Mr. Nazari Bagha has received an award from Astara Islamic Azad University and Universities of Guilan Province as being one of the best researchers and has published many books and numerous papers.

Oedipus Complex in Literature Works

Yan Liu

School of Foreign Languages, Zhenjiang Watercraft University of PLA, Zhenjiang, China
Email: yaan.liu@gmail.com

Chencheng Wang

Zhenjiang Tiger Travel Service CO., LTD, Zhenjiang, China.

Abstract—**In psychoanalytic theory, Oedipus complex denotes the emotions and ideas that the mind keeps in the unconscious, via dynamic repression, that concentrate upon a boy's desire to sexually possess his mother (Freud.1900). In the course of his psychosexual development, the complex is the boy's phallic stage formation of a discrete sexual identity; a girl's analogous experience is the Electra complex. Freud first mentioned the Oedipus complex in 1897. After his father's death, he began to make self-analysis, then the formation of the concept. *The Interpretation of Dreams*, published in 1900, it is the official presentation of the concept. Oedipus complex has always been a cornerstone of psychoanalytic theory. In classical, Freud's psychoanalytic theory, the child's identification with the same-sex parent is the successful resolution of the Oedipus complex and of the Electra complex; his and her key psychological experience to developing a mature sexual role and identity. Sigmund Freud further proposed that girls and boys resolved their complexes differently — he via castration anxiety, she via penis envy; and that unsuccessful resolutions might lead to neurosis, paedophilia, and homosexuality. Hence, men and women who are fixated in the Oedipal and Electra stages of their psychosexual development might be considered "mother-fixated" and "father-fixated" as revealed when the mate (sexual partner) resembles the mother or the father. This paper uses analysis and comparison method, through comparing the prototype of the Oedipus complex in Greek mythology, the similarities and differences between *Oedipus King* and the literatures contain the Oedipus complex--*Hamlet, Sons and Lovers*, *Thunderstorm* and *A Dream of Red Mansions*. It discusses the main reason for the formation of their differences. It further reveals the Oedipus complex which impact on generations and promote the study of it.**

Index Terms—**Oedipus complex, psychoanalysis, literature comparison, son and moth**

I. Introduction

Greek mythology--*Oedipus King* is about the story of Oedipus killed his father and marry his mother, which is the prototype of the Oedipus complex in psychology. The protagonist of the tragedy is the son of King Laius and Queen Jocasta of Thebes. After Laius learns from an oracle that he is doomed by the hand of his own son, he tightly binds the feet of the infant Oedipus together with a pin and orders Jocasta to kill the infant. Hesitant to do so, she orders a servant to commit the act for her. Instead, the servant takes baby Oedipus to a mountain top to die from exposure. A shepherd rescues the infant and names him Oedipus. The shepherd carries the baby with him to Corinth, where Oedipus is taken in and raised in the court of the childless King Polybus of Corinth as if he were his own. As a young man in Corinth, Oedipus hears a rumor that he is not the biological son of Polybus and his wife Merope. When Oedipus questions the King and Queen, they deny it, but, still suspicious, he asks the Delphic Oracle who his parents really are. The Oracle seems to ignore this question, telling him instead that he is destined to mate with his own mother, and shed with his own hands the blood of his own sire. Desperate to avoid his foretold fate, Oedipus leaves Corinth in the belief that Polybus and Merope are indeed his true parents and that, once away from them, he will never harm them.

On the road to Thebes, he meets Laius, his true father. Unaware of each other's identities, they quarrel over whose chariot has right-of-way. King Laius moves to strike the insolent youth with his sceptre, but Oedipus throws him down from the chariot and kills him, thus fulfilling part of the oracle's prophecy. He kills all but one of the other men. Shortly after, he solves the riddle of the Sphinx, which has baffled many a diviner: "What is the creature that walks on four legs in the morning, two legs at noon, and three in the evening?"(Freud,1900,P89--90)

To this Oedipus replies, "Man" (who crawls on all fours as an infant, walks upright later, and needs a walking stick in old age), and the distraught Sphinx throws herself off the cliffside. Oedipus' reward for freeing the kingdom of Thebes from her curse is the kingship and the hand of Queen Dowager Jocasta, his biological mother. The prophecy is thus fulfilled, although none of the main characters knows it.(Freud,1900,P91--92)

This complex works of literature in history repeated, Renaissance pinnacle of Shakespeare's *Hamlet,* published in 1913, Lawrence *Sons and Lovers,* the immortal in the history of Chinese literature work *Dream of Red Mansions, Thunderstorm* and so on.

II. Literature Comparison

A. The Similarities and Differences between Oedipus King and Hamlet

Shakespeare and his work make a tremendous impact on the world are almost household names to the world, and his work, *Hamlet* is not only a familiar name to us but also a summit.

In comparing and contrasting Oedipus and Hamlet, I see Oedipus as more of a man given to sudden, rash decisions and quick temper. Oedipus is definitely a man of action, where Hamlet stews over whether he should kill Claudius. Oedipus is a proud and selfless man, but is more concerned about his image than Hamlet. Hamlet is a very sensitive, moody person, very much in awe of his deceased father, who obviously didn't care about his image or he wouldn't have feigned "madness". Oedipus was a very passionate man, passionate about his position, his wife/mother, people of Thebes, and passionate about his concern for Polybus and Merope. Hamlet shows no genuine love for anyone except for his father and maybe his mother, but this is questionable because he would've killed his mother had the ghost instructed him to. Even when Hamlet declares his love for Ophelia, he later claims it's not true. He is, however, passionate about killing Claudius. Another contrast is that Hamlet is a thinker and a planner, where Oedipus is more emotional and wasn't patient enough to fully investigate the murder of Laius.

It is difficult to abandon the emotion to our mothers, a psychological fear of failure, afraiding to lose his mother, subsequently arise the antipathy to her. The result is the appearance of the personality of the beloved mother being affronted and ridicule. This complex, extremely abnormal behavior comes from Hamlet's subconscious. Similarly, the role of Oedipus in *Oedipus King* do these things is totally unconscious, it is precisely because of these "unconscious", it proves the existence of the Oedipus complex from the side. Who is initiative to love mother but hate father since the baby was born? How much of the psychological pressure he has to bear!

As Hamlet concentrated to the extreme, he is contradictory, his self-condemnation is punishing him, he even thought of life and death issues. This is the most famous passage of *Hamlet*:

To live or to die--that is a question .Whether it is nobler to merely suffer from the blow of doom or to fight against the troubles, and end them by opposing them. To die: it means to sleep and wake no more. And by it, we end the sufferings that are doomed in bodily life, which is a devoutly desired ending. (Shakespear, 1602,P110--111)

B.   The Similarities and Differences between Oedipus King and Sons and Lovers

Sons and Lovers is British writer Lawrence's masterpiece of modernism. His novel also won a wide reputation. This novel has a strong autobiographical color. Make a nearby mining area of Nottingham as the background, around the coal miners Murray and his family. The growth process of young protagonist Paul reflects profound social problems and psychological problems. Paul's mother Gertrude and Paul's father married with falling-out, she turned to his son for love and comfort. This goes beyond the normal maternal feeling, then the feeling control and occupies the heart of his son; bring out the Freudian psychology to Paul, the "Oedipus complex" mentality. He loves his mother much more than any other women.

In the novel, we can see that Paul deeply loved his mother that he obeys what his mother said and did what his mother wished him to. During his life, all he did were to please his mother. When he was a child, he walked all day, went miles and miles to look for blackberries which his mother liked, rather than own himself beaten and came home to his mother's empty handed. When he was away from home, he looked forward to get home earlier because he knew that his mother was alone and waiting his back. In Paul's eyes, his mother was an elegant, undisturbed and beautiful young girl. Every night, he would send his mother to bed and kissed her for good night. After the death of his older brother, William, his family ran into a predicament. The expenditure of the family was larger and larger while the family lived with the wage of 26 ponds of the miner, his father. In order to help his mother to manage the household, Paul got a job in Nottingham and offered his mother his wages.

It was undutiful that Paul was a mourning son, but his main purpose was to help his mother. As to his father, he stood with his mother to be opposed to him, even he hated his father. When his father quarreled with his mother he even wanted to take the place of his father. He believed that his father mismatched his mother and there was no love in their marriage. Once he talked to Clara about love: "love is a dog in the mager"(D.H.Lawrence,1915, P56--57). The situation just liked his parents' marriage because even if his mother did not love his father anymore or hated him extremely, their marriage still continued and his mother would never leave his father. His words hinted to us that Paul had regarded his father as his rival of love; also we can see that Paul replaced his father and protest his mother. The love of the son and the mother was blameless, but it gradually developed into a kind of abnormal love, mother Fixation. We can get the evidence from the novel, once a time, after quarreling with her husband, Mrs. Morel despaired and complained to his son that she never had a husband, a true husband. After hearing this, Paul detested his father very much even he wanted to kill his father, at the same time, he deeply realized that his mother did not only nee d a good son but also a idea husband, and then he could not help touching the hair of his mother and kissing his mother's neck, of which was the strong evidence of Mother Fixation.

From many manifestations we can find that Paul and the original role of *Oedipus King* have a basic difference, the former one produced Oedipus complex while the woman is his biological mother but Oedipus didn't know the truth result in that he killed his father and marry his mother.

Whatever the meaning of Laius's oracle, the one delivered to Oedipus is clearly unconditional. Given our modern conception of fate and fatalism, readers of the play have a tendency to view Oedipus as a mere puppet controlled by greater forces, a man crushed by the gods and fate for no good reason (Wu Qiong,1994). This, however, is not an entirely accurate reading. While it is a mythological truism that oracles exist to be fulfilled, oracles do not cause the

events that lead up to the outcome. In his landmark essay "On Misunderstanding the *Oedipus complex*", E.R. Dodds draws a comparison with Jesus's prophecy at the Last Supper that Peter would deny him three times. Jesus knows that Peter will do this, but readers would in no way suggest that Peter was a puppet of fate being forced to deny Christ. Free will and predestination are by no means mutually exclusive, and such is the case with Oedipus.

Although Mother Fixation was a sensitive subject in the literature world that people seldom refer to. It exists in the society as a common phenomenon that it has distorted the soul of mothers and sons, even damaged the family, which also obeys the ethics of human being. As to the author of Sons and Lovers, D. H. Lawrence, Mother Fixation made him so blind that he did not take care of the moral principles and did not know that he had come to the woman's family and left it broken. The novel *Sons and Lovers* also ended with a tragedy with the death of being mentally and physically exhausted of Mrs. Moreland the failure of Paul's love.

In our daily life, Mother Fixation is a common phenomenon, even if many people do not want to mention it or they do not accept the definition of Mother Fixation. The son who has Mother Fixation is lack of his own thoughts and enterprising spirit because he believes that his mother is his sanctuary and sunshine that never declines. Even when he gets married, his mother is the only person he can rely on not other person. So when there is conflict in his mother and wife he will stand with his mother, go against his wife. As to the mother who has Mother Fixation lavishes her lover upon her son, she controls his behavior and thoughts that she wishes that her son will never go against her. The son is her everything that she is afraid of losing him. As in China, most of the family conflict cause between the mothers and the daughters-in-law. One of the most important reasons is to fight for the domination of the husbands or sons. Once the daughters-in-law come to the family, the mothers will have a sense of tension that the daughters-in-law will take their place to love or control their sons that they are losing their sons. Gradually, the mothers will do something difficult for the daughters-in-law and say something to slander them before their sons, and then the family conflict arouses and the tragedy appears. In order to create a happy life and a harmonious society, we should pay our attention to Mother Fixation and deal with it well because Mother Fixation is a kind of abnormal human beings' love and we should pursue normal love.

C.   The Similarities and Differences between Oedipus King and Two Chinese Literary Works

Having discussed the foreign literary masterpiece *Oedipus King*, now I want to study the similarities and differences between *Oedipus king* and two Chinese literary works--*Thunderstorm and A Dream of Red Mansions.*

In *Thunderstorm,* as ZhouPing in the zhou house, his concentrated aspect of missing content is love. The unconsciousness on Zhou Ping is more obvious, just for his incestuous behavior with his step-mother Fanyi. And after he loves Sifeng, without knowing her true identity, he is shameful to memorize his relationship with Fanyi. Therefore he is unwilling to remember it (Zhao Shankui, 2006). All of those are accorded to the definition of the unconsciousness that if one remembers the depressed emotion or experience, it will cause the excitement, the moral condemn, the shame and the fear of punishment. Zhou Ping's unwilling to remember it just for the moral principles, shame and the afraid of punishment. From what he says: "Eh? You mean you want me to stay here with you, in this god-forsaken place? So that everyday we've reminded of our past sins, until they gradually suffocate us? "We know that he is regretful and shameful, just like he says: "But surely you realize that such a relationship must a relationship must seem revolting to anyone else? ". (CaoYu,1933, P66--69)

Oedipus is the same heroine as ZhouPing, they both hatred their father. Through the works we can imagine that, driven to the country by his father, didn't get much of love from his father. He hated his father, he once said to Fanyi: "I hope he die, even though I committed the immoral sin. (CaoYu,1933, P81)" This is a very obvious tendency of killing his father and marrying his mother. It is the strong indication of Oedipus complex.

Ancient Greek tragedy *Oedipus King* and Chinese modern tragedy *Thunderstorm* both have a kind of amazing artistic charm. The protagonists of these two scripts had maken efforts to avoid a tragedy, but eventually subjugated in the tragedy whirlpool. Either Oedipus king taken in the fate of force, or the ethical and moral strength power of *Thunderstorm*. They are played by the characters themselves to realize what is the tragic result, so all internal conflict or external contradictions should be embodied to the protagonists.

This two plays are highly similar in theme, structure and character design, but we all know that *Thunderstorm* absolutely is not taken simply reprinted by *Oedipus King*. In content, plot, background, there are real differences. Now, I only select characters design to make a simple comparison. We know, drama art appreciation should be appreciate a theatrical performance, not only refer to the script, but also a collective work of crystallization, characters, stage designer settings and so on. To theater work is only enjoy the show. But sino-foreign dramatic history legacy is mainly script instead stage art. So we can't feel the sino-foreign drama atmosphere discrimination from actor poise, gait and lines rhythm, temperament and differences only come   from literature itself, tracing the internal character script.(Zhou Hua,2005)

One of "the collection books of contemporary aesthetic culture" *home -- the parable of contemporary literary identity and gender*, the author Li Jun illustrated the sinicization of Oedipus complex. He argued that the son - mother relationship is a performance of refusing to recognize the father value orders. On the contrary, the son identify the type of maternal value (for nature, human, home and so on). In this view, he pointed out that under the guidance of *A Dream of Red Mansions* is actually the transformation and the fable metaphor of Chinese feudal society. Here, we see the notes to this rule. As a mother, Ms. Wang is naturally weak and insufficient to counter her husband on Jia Zheng's arbitrary

and harsh. If only the mother is bound to be weak, however, the grandmother stood behind him. The feudal culture can make a strong enough shelter against the tyranny of Jia Zheng. This is a peculiar phenomenon of the feudal family. In front of his son and his wife, Jia Zheng is the absolute authority; but the face of grandmother, he became a very respectful son. It is this unique family's environment, so Baoyu is in front of his father formed a rebellious personality.

Of course, Baoyu in *Dream of Red Mansions* can only rebel against his father out along the dark. If the father of Jia Zheng is weaker and more loved to do of the grandmother, Baoyu would show greater rebellious spirit to his authoritarian father.

III. CAUSES OF COMMONNESS

A. *Psychological Explanation*

Oedipus complex is existed by the form of disguise plots in our lives. It not only affects a person's life, but also in art, pop music, literature, humor, insulting god, and many other sacred aspects. Like other elements of psychoanalytic theory, it suggests that there is a very general sense of the original existence of our body. (Freud,1900)The archetypal characters are frequently be observed in literature works, such as *Oedipus King*, Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, Paul in *Sons and Lovers*, and even though China's monumental masterpiece-- Zhouping of *Thunderstorm* and many characters in *Dream of Red Mansions*. Oedipus complex is due to the prevalence of psychological reasons. But for the majority, the concept that the moral context of them is an insult, they are not very easy to accept that feeling. Even if someone just hint to the "incest" for a litter, they would have been soon emerged a very strong aversion. Because of this reason, the theory of the Oedipus complex created a huge shock to many people and even it may be an excuse to reject all things related to psychoanalysis.

B. *The Background of the Literatures*

Father against to the son of Oedipus story is always the contradiction cannot be negated. If the type of Oedipus individual chose the discourse of father identity, it means giving up the primal recognition, growing to another generation of "father", then forcing to his filial parental discourse recognition. No matter how, the old story is a tragedy, an individual and maternal nature tragedy. Since human's existence, Oedipus story was constantly deduced. Therefore the above literature characters embodied fate.

For example, there are a number of similarities and differences between King Oedipus and Prince Hamlet. Both Hamlet and Oedipus are victims of fate, but Hamlet's father is murdered by his uncle Claudius while Oedipus kills his own father, if unwittingly. Hamlet and Oedipus can both avoid their fate, but each believes himself to be the only source of rectifying matters. Both Thebes and Denmark are in turmoil. Thebes is wracked by plague and other ills, while something is "rotten in the state of Denmark" . If there is anything that Hamlet and Oedipus share in common, it is their individual belief that it is up to them to save their respective states.(Fan Cunzhong,1983)

The cruel labor condition and living conditions under capitalist industrialization is the root cause of Paul's "Oedipus complex", and they break the happiness of the family, wrecked people's spiritual health development. (FanCunzhong, 1983) The capitalist industrialization make Murray into a working machine, depress and distort his humanity, instincts and destroys the harmonious relation between the husband and wife, father and son. At last it makes the love of Mrs.Murray abnormal. The Oedipus complex of Paul grows in his body.

Zhouping had grown up in loneliness and depression. He didn't return to Zhou house until 25 years old. Zhouping's father was busy with his coal mine all day, rarely went home. So as adolescence ZhouPing was eager to get bud warm love. Therefore, when young beautiful stepmother appeared, ZhouPing unconsciously fell in love with her.

Let's turn to the *A Dream of Red Mansions*. In traditional Chinese culture, father is often the absolute authority of mother who is difficult to resist tyranny to her son. As the highest authority in the family, grandmother gave Baoyu an effective asylum. She was the poweful mother of the family, appeased her son in the father's harsh rule by the psychological trauma, developed to correctly handle the relationship with his father, at the same time dared to be rebelliously against his father's personality.(Li Juan,2009)

The exploration of this theme in *Oedipus King* is paralleled by the examination of the conflict between the individual and the state in *Antigone*. The dilemma that Oedipus faces here is similar to that of the tyrannical Creon: each man has, as king, made a decision that his subjects question or disobey; each king also misconstrues both his own role as a sovereign and the role of the rebel. When informed by the blind prophet Tiresias that religious forces are against him, each king claims that the priest has been corrupted. It is here, however, that their similarities come to an end: while Creon, seeing the havoc he has wreaked, tries to amend his mistakes, Oedipus refuses to listen to anyone.

IV. CONCLUSION

Roland. Bart said: "there is only one story, namely Oedipus story. (Guo Qunying, 2001)" All kinds of literary works in different text, conceal a story in the way of viewing, tell us the immensity of mother's happiness.

Tragedy comes in many forms, for example earthquakes, tornadoes and hurricanes are all types of tragedies. On the other hand, when talking about tragedy in literature, it has a whole different meaning. Tragedy in literature is on a

smaller scale than things like earthquakes, tornadoes and hurricanes. In literature tragedy is usually about one person and the horrible things that happen to them during their life in a story or play.

In fact, some people know a little more should realize that the object of Freud study is mental patients. His research conclusion is worth referencing, but can not be the truth, because we are not neurotic, we shouldn't make the spontaneous problem.

But Freud said: "people should accept the facts that Greek myth reveals, like Oedipus accepts the inevitable fate "(Freud, 1900, P132).

Through the prototype of Oedipus complex *Oedipus King*, taken with the contrast of *Hamlet*, *Sons and Lovers*, *Thunderstorm* and *A Dream of Red Mansions*, we deeply understand the psychological crux. Oedipus complex as a human destiny symbol overall, is penetrated into each country each nation's history. No matter how it has changed could return to the original text.

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Yan Liu was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1979. She received her M.A degree in Social and Cultural Anthropology from Katholike Universiteit Leuven, Belgium in 2005.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Zhenjiang Watercraft University of PLA, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include psycholinguistics and TESOL.

Chencheng Wang was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1988. She received her M.A degree in English from Jiangsu University, China in 2011.

She is currently an interpreter in Zhenjiang Tiger Travel Service CO.,LTD, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include psycholinguistics and American literature.

The Effect of Word Frequency on Answering Grammar Questions

Zahra Kordjazi

Tehran's University for Teacher Education, Tehran, Iran
Email: Zahra.Kordjazi@gmail.com

Abstract—**The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions. The subjects of the study were 28 female graduates and undergraduates. Two grammar tests each containing 20 questions with low and high frequency words were given to the subjects with an interval of seven days. The questions including rare and common words were distributed randomly in the tests. Paired sample t-test was used for data analysis. The results indicated that there is no relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions. Being familiar with a rare word or not does not affect learner's ability to deal with a grammar question. This study, in fact, has a complementary role in the research on word frequency.**

Index Terms—**vocabulary, word frequency, grammar test, memory encoding**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is central to language. In Crystal's (2003, p. 117) opinion, "vocabulary is the Everest of a language. There is no larger task than to look for order among the hundreds of thousands of words which comprise the lexicon". Frequency is one of the numerous properties of the word. As a matter of fact, "word frequency is a global property. It can be found on the surface of text and is a forerunner of an immense research domain", according to Popescu and Altmann (2009, p. 249).

Truly, word frequency and the difficulty concerning their recall and recognition have been researchers' area of interest for decades. It has been found that "in addition to the advantage of low frequency words at retrieval, there is a low frequency disadvantage during encoding" (Diana & Reder, 2006, p. 805). It means that rare words need more processes to be encoded. Researchers have posited that low-frequency words result in the larger proportion of encoding and thus always have an advantage in recognition (Hall, 1979). On the surface of it, rare words may seem problematic when teaching or testing. But this is not true at all. According to many studies, these words despite their strangeness and less susceptibility would always have an advantage in recognition since they demand more time for encoding. On the other hand, common words are easy to recall due to their familiarity.

Studies which focus on the frequency of words would give rewarding results to researchers from different fields of study including language teaching and psychology. Teachers and testing experts can learn to what extent devote their time and energy to the selection of words while preparing and writing grammar questions. Psychologists, too, can get some hints for further research in the areas of word recognition, mind, recall, attention, and working memory. As these areas are totally intermingled, research on these domains, on the whole, can present new information to language teachers as researchers and thus help them improve their teaching. The benefits of the findings of such studies to language learners are undeniable as well. They may learn to adopt their own strategies learning and answering exam questions by exploring current research in the domain. This of course will guarantee their success. By knowing that "success in memory is commonly attributed to the way information is encoded, stored, and retrieved" they will be able to refocus on their own learning and responding-to-the-task styles and strategies, based on Diana and Reder (2006, p. 805).

A. Research Hypotheses

Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions.

Alternative hypothesis: There is a relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions.

B. Delimitations of the Study

There are two delimitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding the present study. The first delimitation concerns the size of the population. It could include more participants. The second one is that the participants were female students. It could include males as well for a better result or even comparison.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Deese (1960) undertook a research to show that a much greater amount of associative interrelatedness characterize high-frequency words than low. Thus, high-frequency distracters used in the recognition test, because of such

interrelatedness, should generate more false positive responses among the high-frequency target words, than low-frequency distracters should generate among low-frequency target words.

It had been hypothesized that comprehension of the meaning of the whole passages will be increased by varying the frequency of 15 percent of words in elementary school reading materials. To test this hypothesis, 222 sixth graders were randomly assigned by Marks, Doctorow, and Wittrock (1974) to two reading treatments differing only in the frequency of 15 percent of the words used in the stories. Reading comprehension was significantly increased with high frequency story texts. Results demonstrated that increases in the frequency of a small percentage of words enhanced story comprehension, while a few less familiar words inhibited comprehension of the whole text. "The data suggest that, in the design of reading materials for use in elementary schools, sizable increases in reading comprehension can be produced by increased attention to the semantic variable of word frequency" (Marks, Doctorow, & Wittrock, 1974, p. 259).

Schulman did a research in 1976 in order to examine the recognition of words of very low frequency. After having these words rated on a 6-point familiarity scale, a recognition test was provided, the results of which revealed a positive relationship between familiarity and the probability of later recognition.

In two experiments Hall (1979) asked seventy undergraduates studying psychology to learn low and high frequency words. After that, he gave them a recognition test which employed either orthographic or general population distracters. The findings proved his predictions. There is a disparity between recognition and recall measures. The findings revealed that although recognition test scores were higher for low frequency target words than for high when general population distracters were utilized, recognition test scores were higher for high frequency target words when orthographic distracters were used.

Graves, Boettcher, Peacock, and Ryder (1980) reported word frequency as a predictor of students' reading vocabularies and the effects of grade, ability, and sex on word knowledge. Subjects, 432 seventh through twelfth grade students, received an 86 item vocabulary test on which each word represented a frequency block of 1,000 words (1st thousand most frequent, 2nd thousand most frequent . . . 86th thousand most frequent). The findings suggested that correct responses tend to decline rapidly with less frequent words but that the relationship between frequency and word knowledge is not a strong one. Findings also showed significant differences due to frequency, grade and ability but none due to sex.

The relationship between word frequency and passage comprehension was examined by Ryder and Hughes (1985). The researchers presented fifths graders with either a high-frequency version or a low-frequency version of a passage on social studies where 25% of the substance words had been replaced with synonyms of either high or low family frequency values. Following the reading of the passages, literal and inferential comprehension measures were obtained. Findings revealed no significant differences between the two passages on either of the comprehension measures.

Although the study of word frequencies has been one of the favorite and most traditional issues in the history of research on language and psychology for almost a century, it has not received any heed from the viewpoint of grammar tests. Research concerning the effect of word frequency on answering grammar questions is lacking, apparently. Current study, thus, investigated whether being unfamiliar with uncommon words affect learner's ability to deal with grammar tests or not.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Twenty eight female graduates and undergraduates majoring in English Translation, English Teaching, English Literature, biology, geography, and psychology at the same university (Tehran's University for Teacher Education) served as subjects. Not to mention that all of the participants had a good grasp of the grammar of the English language. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 28. The native tongue and the medium of instruction for these Iranian students were representative of most Iranians.

B. Instrumentation

A multiple choice grammar test with forty questions was prepared. The test was divided into two parts (subtests). This was done so that the subjects could not figure out the similarities between two questions having the same format but differing in one word in the test. Each part included twenty items. One half of the twenty item contained low frequency words and the second half high frequency words. The items were distributed randomly in the subtests. Each subtest also included three demographic questions asking subjects' name, gender, and age.

In preparing the whole test, the first task concerned the selection of the words to be included in the test. High frequency words gathered for the test were common simple words of English that were recognizable for low-intermediate learners. However, the low frequency words were chosen from rare, uncommon, and even archaic words in the English language and were obtained from online pages especially devoted to such words including *Grandiloquent Dictionary* (http://www.islandnet.com/~egbird/dict/dict.htm) and *WORDCOUNT* (http://wordcount.org).

The test, all together, was a grammar test which intended to assess subjects' grasp of knowledge of English grammar. However, the main intention of conducting it was to examine the relationship between word frequency and the way students answer grammar questions.

C. Procedure

The first part was given to the subjects and then after an interval of seven days the second part was distributed to them. Before the test the researcher asked the participants to fill out the section of the test pertaining to demographic information. Furthermore, the participants were told to choose the incorrect form among the four underlined choices as there was only one error among them.

Time limitation for the twenty eight female subjects was twenty minutes. Students were told that they should respond to the test without discussing the answers with their friends. All of the participants were rewarded for their cooperation, incidentally.

IV. RESULTS

After, grading the papers and counting the scores of items with low frequency words and high frequency words separately, paired sample t-test was used in order to compare the means of the two variables.

SPSS output:

Here is the descriptive statistics of both variables:

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	LOW	10.7500	28	2.2710	.4292
	HIGH	10.3929	28	2.6011	.4916

Based on the findings, the low frequency word test mean score is a little higher than the mean score of the second variable.

The correlation between two variables:

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	LOW & HIGH	28	.676	.000

There seems to be a strong positive correlation.

The results of the Paired Samples T Test:

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	LOW - HIGH	.3571	1.9854	.3752	-.4127	1.1270	.952	27	.350

The T value= .952
Degrees of freedom=27
The significance is .350

As the significance value is greater than .05, the null hypothesis is supported. Consequently, there is no relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions.

A recent imaging study also found that more attention is given to low-frequency words during encoding (de Zubicaray, McMahon, Eastburn, Finnigan, & Humphreys, 2005) because low-frequency words are associated with a larger blood oxygen level-dependent response in the left prefrontal cortex than are high-frequency words (Diana & Reder, 2006).

Based on such findings, it is not difficult to conclude that test takers in the present study were totally aware of the uncommon words (because the particular heed they gave to the rare words) and intentionally neglected them for the sake of answering the grammar questions properly. Seemingly, their minds were entirely occupied with choosing the wrong grammatical form among the four choices given to them. It appears that they were satisfied with just having a shaky grasp of the sentences' meanings for getting focused on the (un)grammaticality of underlined choices.

The fact that low frequency word test mean score is a little higher than the mean score of high frequency word test shows that subjects did better on questions including the rare words. When there are low frequency words, recognition is nearly errorless, claimed Underwood and Freund (1970). Low-frequency words, in fact, are more likely to be associated with correct source judgment than high frequency words (Rugg & Wells, 1995 (cited in Diana & Reder, 2006)).

V. DISCUSSION

The results demonstrably showed that there is no relationship between word frequency and answering grammar questions. Being familiar with a rare word or not does not affect learner's ability to deal with grammar questions.

Despite a couple of delimitations, the findings of this study provide valuable information to language testing experts and language teachers. They will face little problem selecting proper vocabulary for writing grammar tests. A teacher, additionally, should not give teaching low frequency words a miss in the class. The finding may give teachers some hints on preparing teaching materials as well.

Clearly, the result of the study has added something to different dimensions of word frequency such as the role of memory in processing them while answering a grammar test and the hows of testing grammar.

Suggestions for Further Research

Valuable future research can be conducted to find the relationship between word frequency and answering a cloze test. Or to what extent low frequency words may affect learners' reading comprehension. Does the number of occurrence of a particular rare word in a reading text influence the process of *understanding* the text and acquiring that word? can be the research question of further study on word frequency.

Besides, a similar research can be carried out taking into account different parts of speech of particular words with low frequency and consider how students react to and perform differently on the test.

APPENDIX I GRAMMAR TEST (1)

1. Name: ----------
2. Sex: male/female
3. Age: ------ years old

Read the following grammar questions attentively. Choose the incorrect form among the four underlined parts. Remember, there is just one grammatical mistake in every item of the test.

1. This was the most popularly selcouth game of the day with both teams trying hard to beat each other.
2. The umbrella-shaped table was given as a prize to millionth person who bought furniture from that famous shop in Paris.
3. The cry of the baby with celeste shoes was associated with hunger, wetness, and being lonely.
4. This house is more than enough large for Grant's family to live quite separately.
5. He was introduced to pygmachy by a physical training instructor and won the Army Championship on 1954.
6. Happily, the guide and leader are coming.
7. Diplomats say she let slides the need to take advices or explain her decisions.
8. Christmas is often a time when amazing things that happen with accident create joy where there was none before.
9. The most of what Alice told me was not true and veracious.
10. They studying cultures should take some units with Dr. Wilson as well.
11. No one knew that Rachel was a quite and pusillanimous school girl.
12. No drug charges were ever brought against the gangster, nor was any investigate ordered.
13. Jack's Spanish teacher was angry at him yammering about the grammar section of the exam that was held last Monday.
14. If the dishonest men had heard the news that went around about their appearance in the town, they would had buried the body of the saleswoman.
15. He had so a bad rhinorrhea that he left the meeting early.
16. Kashcool, a famous Iranian restaurant in Canada, serves too delicious kebabs.
17. A number of angry and tired employees of a famous office in London was defenestrating the keyboards of their computers in order to show their anger for not getting enough money.
18. The witch in the story could not turn to stone neither Ben or Edward after catching them with trick and magic.
19. As he has clinomania he not longer gets up early in the mornings.
20. It seemed to me that she was in trouble whether Sarah lived yet died.

Thanks so much for your participation

APPENDIX II GRAMMAR TEST (2)

1. Name: ----------
2. Sex: male/female
3. Age: ------ years old

Read the following grammar questions attentively. Choose the incorrect form among the four underlined parts. Remember, there is just one grammatical mistake in every item of the test.

1. This was the most popularly strange game of the day with both teams trying hard to beat each other.
2. The umbraculiform table was given as a prize to millionth person who bought furniture from that famous shop in Paris.
3. The cry of the baby with sky blue shoes was associated with hunger, wetness, and being lonely.

4. This house is <u>more than</u> <u>enough large</u> for Grant's family to be populated by <u>quite</u> <u>separately</u>.

5. He was <u>introduced to</u> boxing <u>by</u> a physical training instructor and <u>won</u> the Army Championship <u>on 1954</u>.

6. <u>Happily</u>, the cicerone <u>and</u> leader <u>are</u> <u>coming</u>.

7. Diplomats <u>say</u> she neglects the need <u>to take</u> <u>advices</u> or <u>explain</u> her decisions.

8. Christmas is <u>often</u> a time when mind-boggling things that happen <u>with accident</u> create joy where there <u>was</u> <u>none</u> before.

9. <u>The most</u> <u>of what</u> Alice told me <u>was</u> not true <u>and</u> believable.

10. <u>They</u> studying ethnology should take <u>some units</u> <u>with</u> Dr. Wilson <u>as well</u>.

11. <u>No one</u> knew that Rachel was a <u>quite</u> <u>and</u> fearful <u>school girl</u>.

12. No drug charges <u>were</u> ever <u>brought</u> <u>against</u> the hoodlum, nor was any <u>investigate</u> ordered.

13. <u>Jack's</u> Spanish teacher was <u>angry at</u> <u>him</u> complaining about the grammar section of the exam that <u>was held</u> last Monday.

14. <u>If</u> the dishonest men had <u>heard</u> the news that went around about <u>their</u> appearance in the town, they would <u>had</u> inhumed the body of the saleswoman.

15. He had <u>so</u> a bad runny nose <u>that</u> he <u>left</u> the meeting <u>early</u>.

16. Kashcool, a famous <u>Iranian</u> restaurant <u>in</u> Canada, <u>serves</u> <u>too</u> toothsome kebabs.

17. A number of angry and tired employees of a famous office <u>in</u> London <u>was</u> throwing out the windows the keyboards of their computers <u>in order</u> to show <u>their anger</u> for not getting enough money.

18. The witch <u>in the story</u> could not saxify neither Ben <u>or</u> Edward after <u>catching</u> them <u>with</u> trick and magic.

19. <u>As</u> he has an excessive desire to stay in bed he <u>not longer</u> gets up <u>early</u> <u>in the mornings</u>.

2o. <u>It</u> seemed <u>to me</u> that she was in trouble whether Sarah lived <u>yet</u> ceased to exist.

Thanks a lot for your cooperation

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Zahra Kordjazi received her B.A. in English Translation from Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch. She also obtained her M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Tehran's University for Teacher Education. Her major research interests include: social semiotics, gender studies, visual literacy, image-based research, multimodality, and sociolinguistics.

Teacher Correction or Word Processors: Which Is a Better Option for the Improvement of EFL Students' Writing Skill?

Fatemeh Behjat

Islamic Azad University, Abadeh Branch, Abadeh, Iran

Email address: fb_304@yahoo.com

Abstract—**Computers have found their way into language classrooms. It seems machines are slowly taking over from teachers all tedious working which must be done with error in language classes, all the repetitive and time-consuming jobs that make machines of teachers (Kenning, 1990). One of the ways of using computers in language classrooms is word processors to help students in writing mechanics and grammar. This study was done to see if there is any significant difference in the Iranian EFL learners' writing when they use a word processor. For this purpose, a number of 60 sophomore EFL students at Shiraz Islamic Azad University were chosen. Two topics were assigned to write two paragraphs about. It was considered as the pretest. Then, participants were divided into two groups. For treatment, the subjects practiced paragraph writing. In the first group, the teacher corrected the papers, and in the second, the students used the word processor for making corrections. Finally, another paragraph writing test was given to them. The comparison between the students' scores showed that there was a significant difference in the final performance of the two groups. Therefore, this study supports the idea that word processors improve the EFL learners' writing mechanics.**

Index Terms—**CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), word processor, writing skill, foreign language learning, teacher-correction**

I. INTRODUCTION

Learners are intelligent – much more intelligent, in fact than teachers think – and we often do not credit for them. Computers, on the other hand, are stupid. They do exactly what we tell them to do, no more no less. But we can use this stupidity to our own advantage in language learning process. Sudkamp (1988)

The widespread use of computers has created enormous opportunities for learners to enhance their language skills. Technology-enhanced language learning was given a huge theoretical boost when Sydney Papert (1993) and others applied the principles of Piaget (1950) to the use of computers. "Constructivism" involves the use of problem-solving during tasks rather than direct instruction by the teacher. In CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), this theory implies learning by using computer tools to explore a foreign language.

According to Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is a form of computer-based learning not a method. CALL materials are, in fact, tools for learning. They are used in teaching to facilitate the language learning process. CALL is a sort of student-centered learning.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning originates from CAI (Computer-Assisted Instruction) which can be used to reinforce what has been learned in the classroom, or it can also be used as remedial to help learners with limited language proficiency. CALL's origin and development traces back to 1960's (Ferris, 2002). Since the early days CALL has developed to link technology and pedagogy.

Warschauer (1996) divided the development of CALL into three phases: behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL (multimedia and the internet). Behavioristic CALL is defined by behavioristic theories of learning of Skinner. Because repeated exposure to materials was considered to be beneficial or even essential, computers were considered ideal for this aspect of learning as the machines did not get bored or impatient with learners. Communicative CALL is based on the communicative approach in which the focus is on using a language rather than analyzing it. Integrative/explorative CALL, starting from the 1990's, tries to integrate the teaching of language skills into tasks to provide directions. CALL in this period saw the use of computers as a medium to extend education beyond the class and formal instruction.

A number of pedagogical approaches have developed in the computer age, including communicative and integrative approaches. Others include constructivism, whole language theory, and sociocultural theory although they are not exclusively theories of language learning. With constructivism, students are active participants in a task in which they construct new knowledge based on experience to incorporate new ideas into their schema of knowledge. Whole language theory postulates that language learning moves from the whole to the part, rather than teaching the sub-skills like grammar toward higher abilities like writing. Whole language insists on the opposite. Sociocultural theory states that learning is a process of becoming part of a desired community and learning that community's rules of behavior

(Harmer, 2001). What most approaches have in common is taking the central focus from the teacher to students' experience. The computer provides the opportunity for students to be less dependent on a teacher and have more freedom to experiment on their own with natural language.

A number of studies have been done concerning how the use of CALL affects the development of language learners' four skills. Rivers (1968) states students working with computer programs in language learning don't experience the feeling of isolation and depersonalization that some expect. The computer anticipates problems and does corrections and gives comments on students' weaknesses and misunderstandings. Computers never put pressure on students and never move to further practice or work new until students request it. She then adds that some students say computers are so kind. Boswood (1999) mentions the advantages of CALL in a logical way. Generally, the use of computers inside or outside the classroom tends to make the learning job more interesting and raise their motivation. Computers adapt learning to the students, which means that the students control the pace of learning, and it helps them feel more competent in the learning process, and the use of computer technology improves self-concept and mastery over basic skills and helps them think critically and direct their own learning.

One of the basic language skills is writing which consists of some sub-skills such as spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Peter Elbow (1992) expresses the conventional understanding of writing is as a two-step process. First, you figure out the meaning; then you put it into language. He says process is not the end; it is the means to the end. Brown (2001) says that trends in the teaching of writing in a foreign language classroom have not coincided with those of the teaching of other skills. He makes a distinction between writing as a process or product. To him, there is nothing inherently wrong with attention to any of these two aspects. He introduces different types of classroom writing performance: imitative or dictation, controlled or intensive, self-writing, real writing (that is, academic, technical, and personal).He then shows the six general categories that are often the basis for the evaluation and suggestion to the students' writings. They include content, organization, discourse, syntax, vocabulary, and mechanics. According to Holmes and Kidd (1982) as all language skills and sub-skills benefit from the computer, so does the grammar and writing.

As Hanson-Smith (2001) puts it, one of the earliest computer technologies adapted by language teachers is the word processor. Through it, computers can enhance all aspects of the writing process, allowing easy revision and multiple drafts, spell-checking (which can teach spelling by raising students' awareness levels); they allow increasingly sophisticated translation suggestions and grammatical advice are available, which may be used with caution by teachers.

Turkle (1984) cites the case of Tanya, a pupil whose writing changed drastically when she got access to a computer. From never writing anything, she grew to like writing so much as to see herself as a writer. She had beautiful ideas but she didn't know grammar well and too many spelling errors in her writing made it as an unacceptable one. The computer offered her a product that looked so neat and at the same time grammatically correct and free from spelling and punctuation errors that was unquestionably right, a feeling she had never known before using CALL. She was painfully aware of her deficits, ashamed of them, and above all, afraid of being discovered.

Studies by Jones and Fortescan (1987), Leech and Candlin (1986), and Hardisty and Windeatt (1989) reflect the fact that computers provide specific writing facilities in a foreign language. Word processing, the one outstanding successful use of the personal computers, adapts to language teaching by enabling students to compose and try out their writings.

According to Reinders (2007), there are many good reasons for using computers in writing classes: a word-processor removes the problem of handwriting; it allows the students to edit their material at great speed and facility; spellcheckers can ease the task of achieving correct spelling. By the way, a computer screen frequently allows students to see their writings objectively.

Based on what scholars state in the field, where technology is deployed to its best advantage, we should see teachers' roles become that of guide and mentor, encouraging students to take charge of their own learning, helping them to learn at their own pace.

In order to see whether computers can help foreign language learners much better than the teachers in the improvement of their writings, the following question was raised:

Q- Is there any difference between the writing performance of students who use computers and those who are directed by the teacher?

Based on this question, a null hypothesis was formed:

H0- There is no significant difference between the writing performance of those who use computers (i.e., a word processor) and those who are helped by the teacher.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

60 out of 150 available sophomore EFL students majoring in English translation at Islamic Azad University in Shiraz were randomly chosen as the participants of the study. They had all passed their grammar 1and 2 courses; therefore, they were assumed to have the same background in English grammar.

B. Materials

The materials used in this study were two paragraph writing tests given to the participants at the beginning and end of instruction as their pre and post test. For their treatment, while a group of subjects gave their class assignments to be corrected by the teacher, the other group used a word processor for checking spelling, pronunciation, and grammar of their writings.

C. Procedure

The use of computers for typing class assignments by the students in language classrooms seems quite common these days, and most of the students are familiar with Microsoft Word to do the job. In some other classes, however, there are still teachers who ask the students to hand in the hand-written form of their writing homework. In this case, the teacher should not only check the content, organization and vocabulary use in the writings, but she also has to check the students' writings for spelling, grammar, and punctuation.

A group of 60 sophomore students studying English translation at Islamic Azad University in Shiraz were chosen randomly. Then, they were divided into two groups. To make sure that the students were truly randomly chosen, or in other words, they were homogeneous, a writing test was given to them as their pre-test. The teacher assigned two topics to all students to write a paragraph for each. The papers were corrected based on Brown's (2001) model of evaluation writing. A *t*-test was applied to compare the mean of the students' raw scores.

Then, for a period of four months, the students were given a topic each week to write a paragraph on. For the first group, the students were asked to hand in the hand-written form of their assignments to the teacher. The teacher corrected the students' writings and brought them back to the students the following session. For the next group, however, the students were asked to type their assignments using Microsoft Word Office 2003, and check their writings' spelling, grammar, and punctuation before they hand them in to the teacher. Here, the teacher needed only to check the writings' organization, discourse, and content.

At the end of the treatment, again another writing test was given to the students as their post-test. The students' raw scores in the post-test were then compared by another *t*-test.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To see if the students were homogeneous at the beginning of the instruction, a writing test was given to all the students. Brown's (2001) evaluation scheme was used to correct the students' writing. The students' raw scores were then collected and entered the computer. The SPSS program was run and an independent t-test was used to do the comparison between the subjects' writing scores in both groups. The results are as follows:

TABLE 1:
STUDENTS' MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
PRE1CODE 1	30	14.1167	2.326	.425
CODE 2	30	14.7750	2.397	.438

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST TO COMPARE STUDENTS' WRITING RAW SCORES IN THE PRE-TEST

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	-1.08	58	.285	.610	(-1.879,.563)
Unequal	-1.08	57.95	.285	.610	(-1.879,.563)

Since the value of t (t = -1.08) is not so different from the critical t (t = .2), it can be concluded that the difference between the performance of subjects in the two groups was not significant, and thus the subjects were randomly chosen. The mean score of the first group who were supposed to deliver their hand-written homework to the teacher was 14.11 whereas the mean score for the second group who were to hand in their typed computer-checked assignments was 14.77.

To answer the research question regarding the difference in the subjects' performance in the post-test of writing, another t-test was applied. The results are tabulated in the following tables:

TABLE 3:
STUDENTS' MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION IN THE POST-TEST

Variable	number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
CODE 1	30	14.3633	2.345	.428
CODE 2	30	17.7500	1.507	.275

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR STUDENTS' SCORES IN THE POST TEST

t-test for Equality of Means		95%			
Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	-6.65	58	.500	.509	(-4.406,-2.368)
Unequal	-6.65	49.47	.500	.509	(-4.410,-2.364)

As Table 4 suggests, the value of observed t (t = 6.65) is much greater than the value of critical t (t = .5), it can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the performance of the two groups. The students who handed in their hand-written assignments to the teacher to be checked for all aspects of writing (including grammar, spelling, punctuation, as well as content and organization could not improve their writing (mean = 14.36) as well as the second group (represented as CODE 2) who typed their assignments, checked the grammar, spelling, and punctuation of their writings by the computer and gave them to the teacher for only content and organization check (mean = 17.75).

IV. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of the present study provide strong evidence that the use of computers in language classrooms improves the learners' writing skill when it is time to ask them write in the foreign language. The results seem to be very beneficial for the teachers of English as a foreign language who wish, first of all, to improve their students' writing ability, which is one of the goals of language learning, and secondly, to reduce their own tiresome burden of correcting every single aspect of students' writings (i.e., grammar, spelling, punctuation, as well as content, discourse, and organization) when computers gives a hand in checking students' writings' spelling, punctuation, and grammar. It can also guide the language methodologists who are familiar with CALL, and are aware of the positive effect of computers in teaching a foreign language. Thus, it is justifiable if we assume that the more use of CALL and technology, the better the students' achievements in foreign language classrooms.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to see if there is any difference in the performance of students' writing when the grammar, punctuation, and spelling are checked by a computer, namely, a word processor, compared to the performance of those whose hand-written assignments were checked by the teacher. The null hypothesis made was that there is no significant difference in the writing performance of both groups. The results rejected the null hypothesis and showed that this study is in line with the findings of Holmes and Kidd (1982) as well as Leech and Candlin (1986),Jones and Fortescan (1987), and Hardisty and Windeatt (1989) and others who support the use of computers in language learning, specially with regard to writing skill. If we deeply think over the issue and look at the phenomenon from a psychological perspective, we will find out how depressing and disappointening would be for the students who are learning a foreign language to see many mistakes have been marked with a red pen on their papers! But imagine, on the other hand, how encouraging it will be for the same students to find out their own mistakes, independent of the teacher, to be mentioned by the computer with no anger, frowned eyebrows, and a low mark, and corrected by themselves through challenging again and again over their texts. After all, computers seem to be more patient over the spelling, grammar, and punctuation mistakes than teachers!

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Fatemeh Behjat is at present an ABD (All But Dissertation) in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch and a faculty member at Islamic Azad University, Abadeh branch, Iran. She also teaches English at Zand Institute of Higher Education and Islamic Azad University in Shiraz. She has also an eight-year experience teaching English at the ILI. She has so far presented papers at international conferences in Iran and abroad, published books and a couple of articles in language journals. Her main area of interest is teaching and language acquisition.

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